THE
MONTHLY REVIEW,
For JULY, 1809.

ART. I. *Observations on the Historical Work of the late Right Honourable Charles James Fox.* By the Right Honourable George Rose. With a Narrative of the Events which occurred in the Enterprize of the Earl of Argyle in 1685, by Sir Patrick Hume. 4to. large Paper, with a Portrait of Sir P Hume, 1l 16s. Small Paper, without the Portrait, 1l. 5s. Boards. Cadell and Davies. 1809.

IF our ancestors, who were familiar with political controversy as it prevailed a century ago, could cast a momentary glance on the manner and the terms in which it is now carried on among us, they would probably be filled with surprize on witnessing its continuance: for they would observe, in the language of our disputants, that all are agreed on the great points which then agitated the public mind; that all Englishmen *profess* the doctrines of Whiggism, and no man living defends the principles then announced by the Tory faction; that the Revolution of 1688 is universally and by each party termed not only lawful but glorious; and that the Act of Settlement, though its provisions may have been overlooked in some inferior particulars, is regarded as the very foundation of all the blessings that we boast or enjoy. Perceiving all this, they would inquire with astonishment what possible differences, at least as to abstract and speculative positions, could still retain the power of dividing opinions which to appearance were so completely united.

In theological contests, a remark has sometimes been made which is not wholly inapplicable to this question. It has been said that eminent protestant divines have occasionally advanced arguments in favour of their orthodox creed, which would have been equally good in favour of popery before the Reformation. In other words, they have required the assent of their followers to particular doctrines, not on account of their truth, but because they were by law established;—an argument which, if admitted in the time of Henry the Eighth, would have effectually prevented them from ever being established. By a similar method of reasoning, of late years the

measure of the Revolution has been defended ; not that the people have a right to change the institutions of their government whenever they become oppressive, but because the existing institutions of this country have all drawn their origin from the Revolution, and the power of the Whig party has finally triumphed over its adversaries. Thus, (as Mr. Hume observes on the inconsistency of Socrates, who deduced the principle of non-resistance from the notion of an original compact between the governors and the governed,) the Whiggish premises of cashiering the possessor of the throne in the year 1688 are made subservient to the Tory conclusion of entire acquiescence, under any circumstances, in the order of things which happens to be established.

Hence, while we have all ranged ourselves under one political denomination, the spirit of party, which is supposed to be natural to Englishmen, has still found full scope for its former activity. One portion of us are Whigs, from approbation of Whig principles ; the other, because the house of Hanover is actually seated on the throne, and can derive a valid title from nothing but the exclusion of James and his family. The Revolution applies the surest touchstone for ascertaining to which of these discordant opinions an individual is attached. This great event is regarded by the *real* Whigs as a natural consequence of misgovernment, and as the proper punishment for laws invaded, and for an open violation of the social compact ; — that power, which was originally intrusted by the people to their ruler for certain beneficial purposes, being resumed by them when the trust was abused, and the condition broken. The *nominal* Whigs contemplate the Revolution with different eyes. To them it is an insulated and anomalous case, not deducible from but a glaring exception to any rules of public law, and, like other exceptions, tending to confirm the rule by the deviation ;—a transaction not to be justified on principle, though fully sanctioned by success. Their sole plea for it is the overruling necessity that compelled, at all hazards, the exclusion of a popish prince from the throne of their protestant country. According to these reasoners, the only *moral* to be *drawn* from the Revolution is inapplicable to all other circumstances, and the precedent established by it is such as ought never to be pursued.

It is impossible to deny, though grievous to acknowlege, that the illustrious name of Burke has imparted a dangerous splendor to the latter class of opinions : but the weight of his authority will be much diminished, when we consider the temper, the times, and the circumstances in which his later works

works were composed; when we contrast them with the spirit that pervaded the productions of his better days; and, above all, when we attentively weigh the nature of his apology for an inconsistency so strikingly apparent*. On the other hand, a confident appeal may be made to the whole conduct and all the public declarations of the most distinguished luminaries of the last and the present reign,—the great Earl of Chatham, and Charles James Fox. The revolt of our American colonies gave to both the fairest opportunities for unequivocal professions of their political faith: but the immortal champion of liberty in our own times was called to assert its principles under an infinite variety of trials the most disheartening, afflictive, and even perilous. On no single occasion did either of these great men waver in their conviction, or hesitate to proclaim it. They made no sacrifices to the weakness of temporary alarm, to the attractions of City popularity, or to the gainful favour of a Court. Through life, their stedfastness was unshaken; and one of them had resolved to devote the evening of his active day to the task of fixing on the minds of his countrymen, and establishing by historical evidence, the important constitutional truths with which his own mind was impressed. The small part of his history which he was able to accomplish has not in general been justly appreciated; nor will its full value be discovered without frequent consideration and repeated discussions. Every attempt, therefore, to bring its excellence to the test is a benefit to the public: but we own that it was not without some emotions of surprize that we found it assailed by such an antagonist as the present.

The most important position maintained by Mr. Fox is comprehended in his observations on the commencement of the reign of James the Second. He thinks that a connection with France was that monarch's first object, and that his motive to it was the desire of rendering himself an absolute sovereign, rather than that of establishing popery, which was considered as a more remote contingency. This supposition is made probable by observing that the most zealous ministers of James, both in England and Scotland, were protestants; and the lesson to be drawn from this view of facts is described as far more instructive, than it would be if the sole inference were "that we must not have a Catholic for our King."

Against this position it will be easily believed that all Mr. Rose's forces are directed. He sets out with unceremoniously

* See the last page of his "Reflections on the French Revolution."

declaring that it is 'contrary to the clearest evidence;' he remarks, with that kind of official smartness which is not very engaging even in a parliamentary retort addressed to a living adversary, that 'the truth of history is not to be sacrificed to *an instructive lesson*:' but he adds that lessons are instructive in proportion to the extent of their application, not according to the impression which they make; and that it is far more important to warn the generality of the world against religious bigotry, by shewing that it was the cause of James's deposition, than to caution the few individuals, who may happen to fill a throne, against an abuse of regal power. Though his calculation of consequences may not perfectly coincide with our own, we are delighted with Mr. Rose's discovery of the political mischiefs that flow from religious bigotry, and earnestly hope that all private individuals, members of parliament, and others, will profit by his hint. When the just claims of the Catholics are next brought before the House of Commons, that injured body may surely reckon on his enlightened support; and it may be augured with a reasonable confidence, resulting from experience, that Mr. Rose and the majority of our representatives will not differ in their votes!

In order to disprove the opinion of Mr. Fox, a vast number of extracts are taken from the Appendix to his work, all intended to shew that, in the early part of James's reign, both that Monarch and His Most Christian Majesty were intent on the project of establishing the Catholic religion in England. Some of the expressions to this effect are unquestionably strong: but they are very far from being uniform; and an obvious distinction is to be observed in the use of them throughout the correspondence. Lewis appears to insist on the *introduction of popery* as the condition of paying a pension to James; who, on the other hand, naturally unwilling to forego his pension, promises very largely, in phrases which fall extremely short of the importunate vehemence of his sanguine correspondent, to *procure every possible indulgence* to his Catholic subjects. Lewis requires that his own religion should become predominant in England; while James undertakes to obtain for its professors a legal and unshackled right of openly practising its ceremonies. The former asks every thing, and the latter is loth to refuse any thing, but his promises are faint and feeble, as if checked by a secret consciousness that the enterprise was both hopeless and dangerous. Lewis fancies that the name of king implies an absolute power over the bodies, souls, and consciences of all his subjects, and he wishes the first employment of it to be exercised in planting the true faith in England: but James has learned that an English king is

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subject to many restrictions, and deems it prudent to place his authority beyond controul, before he will risk it on so perilous an experiment. This disposition to hesitate and delay, and to decline attempting too much, may be collected from every statement made by James's ministers to the French government, and from every report by Barillon of their confidential discourses: but, as we cannot pursue the comment through any considerable length of text, we shall content ourselves with referring to a letter from Barillon, which appears to us nearly decisive of the question. It is dated the 19th of February, 1685, and is the first document transmitted to Lewis XIV. by his Ambassador, after the death of Charles the Second. The new King of England and the representative of France appear to have been closeted without witnesses, and to have exchanged their sentiments with unrestrained freedom. James threw himself without reserve into the arms of France, and was anxious to enhance his merit with the power to which he looked for support, by promising the most extensive compliance with all that Lewis could desire from him. What, then, at this moment, is his language, and how far do his promises reach? "*Le Roy d'Angleterre*" (says Barillon to his master) "*a ajouté à cela toutes sortes de protestations de reconnoissance et d'attachement pour Votre Majesté; il me dit que sans son appui et sa protection il ne pouvoit rien entreprendre de ce* qu'il avoit dans l'esprit en faveur des Catholiques; *qu'il savoit assez, qu'il ne seroit jamais en sureté que* la liberté de conscience *pour eux ne fût entièrement établie en Angleterre; que c'est à cela à quoi il travaillera avec une entiere appliquation,* dès qu'il y verra la possibilité," &c. (Appendix to Mr. Fox's work, p. xix) Thus, even at the moment of opening his heart to him whom he was most interested to conciliate by the largest protestations, he engages to do no more than aim at the establishment of *liberty of conscience,* and strongly implies his conviction that even this would for some time be impossible. Can we have a stronger proof that a resolution to establish the Catholic religion had at that time no place in his mind?—That he afterward entertained this extravagant scheme, and took active steps for carrying it into execution, all the world knows too well to require the fact to be now stated again. Mr. Rose, however, has done us the favour to relate the particulars much at large; and from them he would have us conclude that James intended, from the very outset of his reign, to abolish the existing religion, and to substitute the Catholic. We might perhaps have acquiesced in his inference, before the publication of Barillon's letters: but by them we are convinced that James was throughout the passive instrument of the French

King; whose commands he dared not to contest, from the fear of losing his pension; and whose bigoted zeal he shared, though experience had taught him the danger of indulging it in a nation of freemen and protestants. We apprehend, then, that James's subsequent labours towards the restoration of popery will be more naturally explained by the impatient remonstrances of Lewis, who never ceased to urge him to them, than by any previously formed resolution of James himself; who is proved, by so many circumstances, to have been worked up slowly and gradually to the violent state of mind, which hurried him to the loss of his dominions.

In our judgment, the objections to this great position of Mr. Fox are by these considerations satisfactorily removed: but various other parts of his work are attacked with equal pertinacity; it is said that he has stated facts without authority; that he has indulged his party-bias at the expence of truth; that he has overlooked facts which might have been established by documents the most authentic and accessible; that he has abused authors, whom he certainly never read; that he has omitted to defend Russell and Sidney from the charge of accepting French bribes, which he might easily have done; and that he has actually gone so far as to state a fact on the evidence of Bishop Burnet, who is intitled to no credit or respect. His head-strong partiality for a republican form of government is inferred from his having rendered justice to the magnanimity of Cromwell, the destroyer of monarchy, while he has spoken with abhorrence of Monk, who restored it; and his solicitude to give colour to rebellion is collected from his having praised the Earle of Argyle, who took up arms against his King, while he refuses to go out of his way to praise the Marquis of Montrose, who resisted the usurped power of the Commonwealth. These various observations afford Mr. Rose numerous occasions of complimenting His present Majesty, and the existing state of the laws; of referring to former works of his own, which may have escaped the memory of an ungrateful public; of treating with complacency of his own official situation, and the natural motives which it induces for perfect impartiality in historical researches; mixed with frequent professions of his own candor, caution, patriotism, modesty, delicacy, official accuracy, and many other amiable qualities.

We trust that it is unnecessary to assure our readers of our willingness on all occasions to investigate important truth; and we will add that, if any colourable charge had been brought against the work of Mr. Fox, we should have been peculiarly anxious to scrutinize it with severity, because it would be as

desirable to deprive real error of the high sanction of his name, as to shield that name from the unjust imputation of suppressing truth, or disseminating falsehood. On the present occasion, however, we openly declare that we scarcely know in what manner to proceed; an attentive perusal of the volume before us has fully convinced us that all the charges against Mr. Fox are destitute of foundation: but a detailed examination of them would exceed all reasonable limits; and it is Mr. Rose's unhappiness that his proofs and allegations are equally repulsive in their manner, tedious in their particulars, and trifling in their effect. By what beneficial operation, then, these 'Observations' are to render a 'service to his country,' he has not condescended to explain, and we have not the ingenuity to discover.

This gentleman's attack on Bishop Burnet is induced by that prelate's assertion, adopted by Mr. Fox, that Monk procured the conviction of Argyle, by betraying confidential letters addressed to him by that nobleman. The fact itself has been disputed before, by Dr. Campbell, in his Lives of the Admirals, and also in his life of Archibald Marquis of Argyle in the *Biographia Britannica.* Their arguments, some of which are certainly intitled to consideration, Mr. Rose has copied into his Appendix; and he has added some others of a negative kind, which we shall transcribe in his own words:

'Woodrow, an historian zealously attached to the Presbyterian cause, who lived soon after the event, and was remarkably industrious in searching records, and collecting anecdotes, especially such as affected leaders in that party, is entirely silent on the point. The reliance, however, placed by Mr. Fox on this anecdote, appeared to call for a further attentive investigation, in order to ascertain the truth or falsehood of it. Without resting, therefore, on the industry which had been applied formerly, a diligent search was first made amongst the records of the Parliament, the Council, and the Justiciary in Scotland, to discover whether any trace of the fact alleged could be met with in the proceedings on the trial of the Marquis: but a chasm in those periods rendered that search ineffectual. Recourse was next had to a collection of all the publications during the civil war, and some years after the Restoration, supposed to be complete *; several of them written after the death of the Marquis, and some by persons devoted to his memory; giving accounts of what was most interesting respecting him, and of what passed at his trial, and to his latest moments: in no one of which is there the remotest allusion to papers of any sort having been read, previously to passing sentence on him, in aggravation of his offence.

'No better success attended a most diligent search in a collection of the books and pamphlets, printed in the reigns of King Charles the

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'* In the possession of the author.'

First and Second, presented by His Majesty to the British Museum, in which there are no less than seven different tracts respecting the trial and execution of the Marquis, published in London and Edinburgh in 661: one intituled the last proceedings against him, "containing, *inter alia*, a speech of his, in which he expressly denies having had any epistolary intercourse with Cromwell, or any of that sectarious army *."

'The inquiry, however, did not end there. Thurloe's State Papers having been referred to in the Biographia Britannica on the subject, an examination was made through that voluminous collection, whether there had been any communication between the Marquis of Argyle and Monk; but nothing of the sort could be found: on the contrary, there is, besides the passages referred to in the Biographia, the heads of a discourse between the exiled King and Don John of Austria †, on the state of Scotland in the end of 1650, which afford strong presumptive evidence that no confidential letters, especially of such high importance to the writer as those alluded to, were written by the Marquis.'—

'In order, however, to leave no source of information untried, recourse was had, last of all, to the newspapers of the time, in which particular accounts of the proceedings on the trial of the Marquis at Edinburgh were given from day to day; but not a syllable of the pretended communication made by Monk is to be found in them. It is hardly possible to conceive that stronger evidence could be found in any case to establish a negative, than is here produced to prove the falsehood of the Bishop's charge. We must therefore believe, that if Mr. Fox had informed himself fully on the subject, he would have been induced to forbear the positive condemnation of Monk, and the consequent severe censure upon him.'

Let us calmly inquire what is the amount of all this ostentation of industry. Woodrow lived soon after the event, which was not properly within the scope of his church history: but Burnet lived at the time of the event, and could not have been deceived respecting it. The records of Parliament were properly searched; yet it was not likely that the letters should be found there, for they are expressly said to have formed no part of the evidence, but to have been read in the course of the debate by Lord Middleton, after the evidence was closed and found insufficient.—The records of the Council were still less promising; for it does not appear that Argyle was once examined before the Council. It was equally fruitless to rummage the papers of the Court of Justiciary for what occurred in a parliamentary trial.—As well might Mr. Rose have said that Lord Melville was never impeached, because the Court of King's Bench retains no traces of his trial before

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* 'The last Proceedings against the Marquis of Argyll, &c. London, 1661, 4to.'

† 'Thurloe's State Papers, Vol. v. p. 604.'

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the House of Peers. The absence of these letters is explained by Dr. Campbell in his life of Argyle, in a most satisfactory way, and Mr. Rose cites the following sentence from it: "The great ministers of those times, and those who were deepest in taking away the Marquis's life, *removed*, as far as they were able, *all the minutes relating to his process.*" If, then, Mr. Rose believed Dr. Campbell, he might have entirely spared himself the vaunted labour of this useless search. Nobody would think of examining the registers of the Court of Justiciary, for a discovery of the vouchers which Lord Melville and Mr. Trotter obliged themselves, by contract, to destroy.

The omission of this fact in the various publications of the time savours strongly, we think, of a forcible suppression, by the government of Scotland, of the documents of their own scandalous conduct and the inexcusable baseness of Monk. Let it be remembered, too, that the liberty of the press was in those days very imperfectly established; and that the disclosure of any thing which the Parliament, or the Council, wished to conceal, would have probably been visited with severe animadversion. Moreover, the letters in question were no part of the evidence, nor were they read in *aggravation* of Argyle's *offence.* All the facts, on which his indictment was to rest, had been given in evidence; they included treasonable acts fully sufficient to lead to a conviction, if they proceeded from a treasonable intention, and were not to be considered as mere evidence of non-resistance to the government *de facto*, which he had not power to overthrow. The question therefore related, as the lawyers express it, to the *quo animo* of the Marquis;—of which it is easy to conceive that his parliamentary judges would be satisfied by the Commissioners privately reading these letters, though they never formed any part of the public process against him.

Argyle's disavowal of all "*epistolary intercourse* with Cromwell, or any of that sectarious army," appears to point at something like what is here imputed to Monk: but it is possible that the crafty prisoner might draw rather a jesuitical distinction in his own mind, between Monk's military character as an officer in Cromwell's army, and his civil capacity as governor of Scotland; and it is hard to conceive that in the latter some correspondence should not have passed between them. Argyle was sheriff of his own county, and must have communicated with the ruling powers of the state; and might not so subtle a mind have consulted his own safety, by professing more attachment to Cromwell and his government than he felt, for the very purpose of concealing that disaffection towards them, of which he was so strongly suspected? If he did so, such pro-

fessions in his own hand-writing would be at once admitted as decisive of the *quo animo*, by those who wanted only a plausible pretext to justify their predetermined sentence.

Thurloe's State Papers prove nothing on this subject.

It is hoped that the silence of the news-papers has been sufficiently explained, by what was said with respect to the silence which is observed by other publications: but it is proper to mention that, in our extract, we have omitted a panegyric on Monk by Skinner his chaplain, which we consider as both inapplicable and ridiculous.

Though Mr. Rose has condescended to repeat so much from the works of others in defence of the 'restorer of royalty,' he takes no notice of what is said on the other side. He does not canvas the memoirs of Baillie, nor Cunningham's History of Britain, who state the same fact in the same manner; and though he mentions that Mr. Laing adopted it from them, he would conceal from us that this acute investigator was aware of the doubts of Dr. Campbell, by whom he observes (vol. iv. note 1.) that it "is preposterously questioned."—We really cannot suffer our prejudices in favour of royalty, even with the assistance of Mr. Rose's industry and Dr. Campbell's ingenuity, to outweigh the testimony of three respectable witnesses, confirmed by the judgment of the most accurate historical reasoner now living, and adduced to prove a fact which is highly probable in itself.

We venture to call Burnet a respectable historian, notwithstanding the great pains employed by the present author to vilify and degrade him. In the Appendix, No. 6, Mr. Rose has adopted the invective poured forth by a Mr. Bevil Higgons, in two octavo volumes, against "the mis-statements, inaccuracies, and errors in the Bishop's history;" has been at the expence of reprinting a complimentary dedication of a book of Burnet to the Duke of Queensberry, whom in his history he afterward freely censured; has himself pointed out three trivial mistakes, which are so easy of correction that they could never have been intended to deceive; and has copied some of the MS. notes written in the margin of the Bishop's history by the second Earl of Dartmouth, who treats the prelate's reputation for veracity very coarsely indeed. We know not why this Tory Earl is more deserving of credit than the Whig Bishop: but we are sure that one of his reflections on Burnet, for having been "a domestic servant in the Hamilton family," even if that circumstance be true, shews no liberality of mind. Another of this nobleman's annotations declares that the first inquiry which the Bishop "made into any body's character was, whether he were a Whig or a Tory; if the latter, he made it his business to rake all the spiteful

spiteful stories," &c. — perhaps so;—and perhaps the first Earl of Dartmouth, the confidential friend of Charles and James, (the latter of whom, after his abdication, corresponded with and distrusted him,) may have suffered from the Bishop's diligence in collecting facts. It is probable that many other noblemen may have been equally interested to abuse this plain-spoken prelate, and that many marginal libels of equal virulence might be produced from the libraries of the great: but these illustrious characters would be quite as little disposed to pardon his veracity as his falsehood. We must add, however, that Lord Dartmouth does not appear to have contested the truth of the anecdote concerning Monk's surrender of the letters which he had received from Argyle.

To us, the narrative of Bishop Burnet affords strong internal evidence of truth. We cannot believe that he as a religious man, writing in the style and with the professions employed by him, and with so much openness and simplicity, could possibly be engaged in the fabrication of wilful and deliberate lies. That he was careless, credulous, and partial, may be allowed: but that he was guilty of corrupt deception is in our opinion incredible *. The same judicious historian, whom we have before cited, in the same note to which we referred for his opinion on Monk's treachery to Argyle, nicely and justly discriminates the merits of Bishop Burnet. Mr. Laing thus expresses himself: "Burnet's veracity, at least in Scottish affairs, is attested throughout by his coincidence with Woodrow's history and original materials; an immense mass of MSS. in the Advocate's Library, which I have carefully inspected. The coincidence is the more remarkable, as Woodrow, who published in 1721, 1722, had never seen Burnet's history, published, the first volume in 1723, the second in 1734. In writing from memory, Burnet neither is, nor pretends to be, always correct in dates; and in his latter days he was undoubtedly credulous. But his narrative is neither to be rejected because the dates are misplaced, nor are the glowing characters of nature to be discarded because they coincide not with the prejudices of party writers." This appears to us a very adequate answer to Messrs. Higgons and Rose.—We beg also to call our reader's attention to the unexpected confirmation which a fact stated by Burnet alone, and questioned by Mr.

* Lord Dartmouth himself says, in one of his notes, "He was extremely partial, and readily took every thing for granted that he heard to the prejudice of those he did not like; which made him pass for a man of less truth than he really was. I do not think he designedly published any thing he believed to be false."

Rose,

Rose, (p. 156, 157.) has received from Lord Lonsdale's interesting memoir, lately printed, and reviewed in our last Number. That nobleman, who was a member of parliament when the "bill for declaring treasons" was brought in, expressly mentions the vigorous and effectual opposition by which it was defeated.

The present opportunity will not perhaps be deemed an improper one, for inserting, from the volume before us, an anecdote respecting the Marquis of Argyle, whose trial has been so long under our consideration. It relates to the period at which he was in the highest authority, and had nearly succeeded in establishing Charles the Second on the throne of Scotland; and it rests on the credit of Lord Dartmouth's MS. notes in his copy of Burnet's history:

"When the King came to Scotland, the Marquis of Argyle made great professions of duty to him; but said, he would not serve him as he desired, unless he gave some undeniable proof of a fixed resolution to support the Presbyterian party, which he thought would be best done by marrying into some family of quality, that was known to be entirely attached to that interest; which would in great measure take off the prejudices both kingdoms had to him, upon his mother's account, who was extremely odious to all good Protestants: and thought his own daughter would be the properest match for him, not without some threats if he did not accept the offer; which the King told Colonel Legge, who was the only person about him that he could trust with the secret *. The Colonel said, it was plain the Marquis looked upon His Majesty to be absolutely in his power, or he durst not have made such a proposal; therefore, it would be necessary to gain time, till he could get out of his hands, by telling him he could come to no conclusion, in an affair of that nature, before he had acquainted the Queen his mother, who was always known to have a very particular esteem for the Marquis and his family, but would never forgive such an omission. But that was an answer far from satisfying the Marquis, who suspected Colonel Legge had been the adviser, and committed him the next day to the castle of Edinburgh; where he continued till the King made his escape from St. Johnstoun, upon which he was released: the Marquis finding it necessary to give the King more satisfaction than he had done before that time."

We are much deceived, however, if this fact has not been before recorded.

'* If credit is to be given to Voltaire, the spirit of Charles was so broken two years afterwards, suffering under the severest privations in 1652, as to induce him to propose to Cardinal Mazarin to marry one of his nieces, which was rejected by the Cardinal; but who, three years afterwards, would have encouraged it, when difficulties were opposed to it by the Queen Dowager.'

Mr.

Mr. Rose enters largely into the circumstances of competition between Archibald Marquis of Argyle, and his rival the Marquis of Montrose, whom he censures Mr. Fox for declining to panegyrize. He allows, indeed, that 'the character given of him by Clarendon (who could not forgive him for having taken the first covenant) is certainly more *admirable* than *amiable*:' but did he know that Clarendon charges that great champion of royalty with deserting the covenant, purely from hatred to Argyle; that he "by underhand and secret insinuations made proffer of his service to the King," and actually proposed the private assassination both of Argyle and Hamilton * ?—Was this a fit subject for the panegyric of Fox? Or is an adherence to the King, from whatever motive it originates, to be deemed a sufficient covering for the whole multitude of sins?—We have no pleasure in bandying about these Whig and Tory criminations, a century and a half old; which are painful and disgusting to contemplate, but which are not wholly useless in enabling us to form an estimate of human nature.

As to Mr. Rose's observations in defence of Russell and Sidney, they are rather probable than original:—they amount to this:—that Barillon was more likely to have deceived his master by stating that he had bribed those patriots, than they were to have dishonoured themselves by accepting a bribe from France. In the money-negotiations between the two courts, Barillon is reported to have grown rich; and it may be conjectured from a letter addressed to him by Lewis XIV. and inserted near the end of Mr. Fox's Appendix, that his master was not without suspicions of peculation in the ambassador. It is greatly to be regretted that we are deprived of the sentiments of Mr. Fox on this interesting point. Lord Holland would have rendered a very acceptable service to the public, by reporting the opinion which his relation ultimately formed on the subject, after his return from Paris;—an opinion which he surely must have declared in conversation to his friends.

Mr. Rose's extracts from D'Avaux are entertaining, but somewhat irrelevant. On the Duke of Monmouth's expedition, he generally agrees with the object of his attack, and therefore says little: but for our own part we strongly dissent from both, as to the indulgence which they are willing to allow to the meanness of Monmouth's supplications to the King. A paper occurs in the Appendix, which contains rather full particulars of the Duke's last moments, but nothing of much novelty or importance.—The discussions on Mr. Fox's account of Argyle's

* See Clarendon's History of the Rebellion, Vol. ii. p. 298, Oxford edition. 1707.

attempt

attempt, apprehension, and execution, are chiefly remarkable as they display the author's sensitive regard for all persons in authority, and all who are in any manner attached to a regular and existing government.

'In examining,' says Mr. Rose, 'I hope with candour and impartiality, the political tenets of Mr. Fox, I can scarcely be accused of an ungracious attempt to lessen the reputation of his work.' Yet, if Mr. R.'s charges were true, that work would be of no value; and if the party feelings of its author had obtained the sway here imputed to them, they would afford an instance of the most childish weakness that ever was united to great mental powers. The unfinished state, in which the labours of Mr. Fox were left at his death, might have furnished some apology for considerable errors, if they had been detected: but we are clearly of opinion that no impression has been made, in any single instance, on the accuracy of Mr. Fox's narrative, or the justness of his opinions. Mr. Rose, then, acted wisely in excusing the imperfections of his own production, by alleging the shortness of time in which it was composed; though, perhaps it was not wise to commence such an enterprize without an opportunity of devoting more time to its completion. 'In the midst of almost unremitting attention to official duties, which *take* equally from the *disembarrassment* of the mind *as* from the *leisure of time*,' as he beautifully expresses himself in his preface, p. xxxvi. he certainly may be forgiven if he has failed to overthrow the well digested operations of a great and powerful mind: but whether he was well advised, when he attempted any thing of this sort, is a question which we shall not presume to answer; though we flatter ourselves that we may have contributed towards qualifying him to answer it for himself. Some allowance is claimed 'for the *necessity* of these observations appearing' ("*je ne vois pas la necessité*") 'while Mr. Fox's work was fresh in the memory of those who have read it:' but we cannot admit the occasion for so much expedition, while we can venture to assure Mr. Rose that such a work as that which he has assailed will not be easily forgotten, nor seldom read.

When we saw this quarto volume announced for publication in the newspapers, it bore this title in the advertisement:—"*A Narrative of Events, &c. by Sir Patrick Hume, with Observations on, &c. by the Right Hon. George Rose.*" The title-page of the volume itself, regulated no doubt by correct rules of precedency, has reversed this order, and has made the observations of the privy counsellor take the lead of the knight's narrative, which is placed in an obscure corner of the book, between two hundred pages of Observations and a long Appendix.—Mr. Rose

Rose certainly appears to be possessed of many valuable historical documents; among which the papers of the late Earl of Marchmont, the descendant of Sir Patrick Hume, and the friend of Mr. Rose, hold a distinguished situation. It will be remembered that Sir Patrick joined the Earl of Argyle's expedition in 1685, of which he wrote a rather full account to his wife; and Mr. Rose, thinking that this narrative throws some new light on that unfortunate transaction, and may serve to remove certain imputations which he conceives have been cast on the character of Sir Patrick, has very laudably committed it to the public. It demands a more particular examination than we can now find space to bestow on it, after having paid our respects so much at length to the Right Honourable corrector of Mr. Fox's history: we are therefore reluctantly compelled to postpone it to a future article.

[*To be continued.*]

Den.

ART. II. *Gertrude of Wyoming*; a Pennsylvanian Tale. And other Poems. By Thomas Campbell, Author of "The Pleasures of Hope," &c. 4to. pp. 134. 1l. 5s. Boards. Longman and Co. 1809.

THE brilliant and early promise of poetical talent which we joyfully hailed in Mr. Campbell's first performance,—the manly maturity which his mind has since attained, — his prudent delay in risking a second attempt, which manifested his scrupulous regard for reputation, while it afforded him ample leisure for correction and improvement, — and finally the natural operation of "hope deferred," in stimulating impatience, — all combined to inspire a sanguine confidence that this much protracted poem would rival the best productions of our most distinguished classics. At length the volume was ushered into the world; and the general expectation, thus highly wrought and eagerly excited, has been quenched in the universal feeling of total disappointment.

According to our long observation of the literary decisions of the public, they have often erred by excessive indulgence, and sometimes by undeserved neglect: but we do not remember a single unjust sentence of deliberate condemnation. In the present instance, however, a desperate experiment has been made, to drown the expression of the prevailing opinion in a tumult of noisy panegyric. A dictatorial cabal has attempted to win the mass of readers by complimenting their sensibility, or to threaten them into affected admiration by the dread of imputed dullness. As our own judgment, however, entirely coincides

coincides with that of the majority, we feel ourselves bound to defend it with some particularity, by speaking plainly of the preponderating faults, as well as of the small, the doubtful, and the chequered merits, of the work before us. This examination is due to the public taste, which is in danger of being vitiated by the worst sort of corruption; and it is not less due to the reputation of Mr Campbell, who may perhaps hereafter feel that we are intitled to his gratitude for the frankness of our proceeding; since, if he could be unfortunately persuaded by the co-operation of flattery and self-love that this poem is one of which he might be proud, all chance of his future excellence would from that moment vanish "into air, into thin air."

At the same time, it is right to observe that disappointment in the general effect of a literary production constantly indisposes the mind for the enjoyment of such parts of it as may deserve considerable applause. When our hopes of excellence are baffled, we are not in spirits to search for those inferior beauties of poetry, which we should otherwise deem worth the pains of inquiry;—when we have vainly looked for the picturesque enchantments of "the Fairie Queene," or the voluptuous refinement that pervades "the Castle of Indolence," we have not patience to hunt after such minuter graces as those which raised Dr. Beattie's "Minstrel" above the level of its contemporary poems. With the domestic part of this last-mentioned work, describing the rural habits of Edwin's father, and the happy life which he led with "the blameless Phœbe," the tale of Gertrude of Wyoming, where it is intelligible, may perhaps be fairly paralleled; and we hope to persuade that numerous class of readers, who have laid down the book with an undiscriminating sentiment of displeasure, that it contains some stanzas which are animated by noble emotion, some which are adorned with much elegance of description, and a few specimens of a style which has been laboured with felicity, and might have been rendered uniformly forcible, expressive, and perspicuous.

Mr. Campbell describes the lovely innocence of the secluded settlement of Wyoming, in Pennsylvania, before the fatal invasion by the Indians in 1778. We shall quote some of his first stanzas, and observe on them as we proceed:

'On Susquehana's side, fair Wyoming,
Although the wild-flower on thy ruin'd wall
And roofless homes a sad remembrance bring
Of what thy gentle people did befall,
Yet thou wert once the loveliest land of all
That see the Atlantic wave their morn restore.

Sweet

Sweet land! may I thy lost delights recall,
And paint thy Gertrude in her bowers of yore,
Whose beauty was the love of Pennsylvania's shore!'

The reader will immediately perceive that this verse is not cited for the beauty of its language. In a pathetic address to Wyoming, its geographical position should not have been the first fact stated. 'Gentle peop*le did* befall' is somewhat tame and low. 'See the Atlantic wave *their* morn restore' seems a strange periphrasis for lying to the westward of the Atlantic. The needlessness of the Alexandrine appendage is obvious to every reader, as well as its slow length and deficiency of meaning.

'It was beneath thy skies that, but to prune
His Autumn fruits, or skim the light canoe,
Perchance, along thy river calm at noon
The happy shepherd swain had nought to do
From morn till evening's sweeter pastime grew,
Their timbrel, in the dance of forests brown
When lovely maidens prankt in flowret new;
And aye, those sunny moun'ains half way down
Would echo flagelet from some romantic town.'

Some surprize was excited in our minds, when we discovered, after repeated perusals of this second stanza, that it was actually susceptible of a grammatical construction: but our language, unassisted by inflected verbs and oblique cases in nouns, will not easily bear such distortion as it here undergoes; and it is besides impolitic in an author to detain our attention too long in decyphering the sense of such a passage. If the happy swain had nothing to do but the work of a gardener or a waterman, why is he called a *shepherd?* Of the evening pastime, which *grew*, and was sweeter than having nothing to do, delicacy *perchance* prevented a fuller description. The termination of the last line but one, 'half way down,' has 'nought to do' with the meaning, but is of great use to the rhyme.

'Then, where of Indian hills the day-light takes
His leave, how might you the flamingo see
Disporting like a meteor on the lakes—
And playful squirrel on his nut-grown tree;
And ev'ry sound of life was full of glee,
From merry mock-bird's song, or hum of men,
While heark'ning, fearing nought their revelry,
The wild deer arch'd his neck from glades, and then
Unhunted, sought his woods and wilderness again.'

We should be somewhat puzzled to ascertain what are the periods fixed by the word *then* in the first line, and in the last

last but one. Perhaps not any: but this may be deemed an easy and familiar way of continuing the description. If so, we will take this occasion to remark the inconsistency of patching these every-day idioms—*nought to do—daylight takes his leave*—(we should have preferred, *makes his bow*)—the infantile exclamation, HOW *might you the flamingo see—over hills and far away*,—&c., on a groundwork of style which abruptness and inversion, the omission of articles, and the precedency of verbs to nouns and of substantives to adjectives, conspire to invest with the character of extreme pedantry. *Arching a neck from a glade* is a curious phrase; and the music of our language is not improved by the newly created participle, *unhunted*.

'And scarce had Wyoming of war or crime
Heard but in transatlantic story rung,
For here the exile met from ev'ry clime,
And spoke in friendship ev'ry distant tongue:
Men from the blood of warring Europe sprung,
Were but divided by the running brook;
And happy where no Rhenish trumpet sung,
On plains no sieging mine's volcano shook,
The blue-ey'd German chang'd his sword to pruning-hook.'

Here the obscurity is at length broken by a gleam of sense and poetry. Excepting the last three lines and the first two, this stanza is good:

'Nor far some Andalusian saraband
Would sound to many a native rondelay.
But who is he that yet a dearer land
Remembers, over hills and far away?
Green Albyn! * what though he no more survey
Thy ships at anchor on the quiet shore,
Thy pellochs rolling from the mountain bay;
Thy lone sepulchral cairn upon the moor,
And distant isles that hear the loud Colbrechtan † roar!

'Alas! poor Caledonia's mountaineer,
That want's stern edict e'er, and feudal grief,
Had forced him from a home he loved so dear!
Yet found he here a home, and glad relief,
And plied the beverage from his own fair sheaf,
That fir'd his Highland blood with mickle glee;
And England sent her men, of men the chief,
Who taught those sires of Empire yet to be,
To plant the tree of life; to plant fair freedom's tree!'

We can no longer pursue the irksome toil of expatiating on the defects of a style which is obviously at once artificial

'* Scotland.'

'† The great whirlpool of the Western Hebrides.'

and

and uncouth, vulgar and elaborate: but we will request the intelligent reader once more to cast his eye over the stanzas above quoted; and must take the liberty of asking whether he could have doubted, if we had quoted such poetry with applause, that we were laughing in our sleeve both at him and Mr. Campbell?

The patriarchal governor and judge of this fortunate hamlet was Albert, an Englishman, whose '*mutual heart*' '*fate had reft*,' (*i. e.* he was a widower,) but to whom his only child Gertrude was spared. The description of this amiable sage is rather interesting: but we are sorry that it is not in our power to make it comprehensible without transcribing the whole verse, of which the first five lines are in the same strain of affectation as the greater part of those which we have above cited:

> 'How rev'rend was the look, serenely aged,
> He bore, this gentle Pensylvanian sire,
> Where all but kindly fervors were assuag'd,
> Undimm'd by weakness' shade, or turbid ire;
> And though amidst the calm of thought entire,
> Some high and haughty features might betray
> A soul impetuous once, 'twas earthly fire
> That fled composure's intellectual ray,
> As Ætna's fires grow dim before the rising day.'

The concluding simile has much beauty, and is, we believe, new. It is, however, deficient in propriety, because the fires of Ætna are obscured, but not extinguished, by the light of day; and while the blazing sun prevents them from spreading an alarm, they are effecting unseen the work of horror and devastation. They might have been compared with more correctness to hypocrisy than to self-subjugation.

Some beautiful lines occur in describing the early years of Gertrude:

> 'How like a new existence to his heart
> Uprose that living flow'r beneath his eye.'

> 'I may not paint those thousand infant charms;
> (Unconscious fascination, undesign'd!)
> The orison repeated in his arms,
> For God to bless her sire and all mankind;
> The book, the bosom on his knee reclin'd,
> Or how sweet fairy-lore he heard her con,
> (The playmate ere the teacher of her mind);
> All uncompanion'd else her years had gone
> Till now in Gertrude's eyes their ninth blue summer shone.'

This is a lovely picture of the endearing intercourse between a father and an infant daughter: but the 'ninth blue

summer' in her eyes cannot pass unquestioned; and we dislike the association of ideas by which the bard is led to begin his recital. Having just mentioned this ninth blue *summer* that shone in Gertrude's eyes, he is reminded that it was *summer time* when a particular event occurred:

> '*And summer* was the *tide*, and sweet the hour,
> When sire and daughter saw,' &c.

This is a very forced connection: but not more so than the comparison of a white boy led by a swarthy Indian to '*morning* brought by *night*,' an image which never could be drawn from any observation of natural appearances.

The object which the sire and the daughter thus saw was an Indian chief, of the Oneyda tribe, leading an English boy, the only surviving child of Waldegrave and his Julia, with whom Albert had formerly been united in the closest bonds of friendship. This boy's father was slain in a treacherous attack by the Hurons, and his mother appears to have died of grief, but not till she had directed old Outalissi to confide her orphan to the hands of Albert. Here a vast and extraordinary chasm occurs in the story, which leaps from this period to the *return* from Europe of Albert's protégé, this Henry Waldegrave; whose *departure* from Wyoming had not been announced before. It is scarcely requisite to add that, after his return, the young people were instantly married. Their happiness, which exceeds all description, was fatally destroyed by the invasion of the Mohawks under Brandt, who compelled the inhabitants to fly from their beloved retreat to a place of strength and safety: but a party of riflemen beset them on their journey, and Albert and his daughter were laid low by the same bullet. What afterward becomes of Waldegrave or of Outalissi, we know not: but a sort of death-song of the latter finishes the poem.—Our readers will perceive nothing peculiarly well imagined in the events, and nothing very ingenious in the construction, of this story; which certainly, however, furnishes ample scope for the exercise of the softer emotions. If Mr. Campbell has eminently succeeded in awakening them, this would be better evinced by a reference to the affecting passages of his poem, than by any detailed commentary on their beauties: but, in aiming at a selection, we honestly and sorrowfully declare that we have considerable difficulty in chusing a stanza, or even a sentence, in which the sense and feeling are not overpowered by obscurity of expression, or wounded by painful affectation. The character of Outalissi appears to us the most successful as it is the most laboured portion of the poem; and the contrast between him and the more sensitive

sensitive European is as finely marked in the first part, as that which is caused by his ardor of revenge and the Christian's equanimity in the last. Albert gives way to the mixed effusions of affection and regret, when the son of his friends is just presented to his care :

' He said—and strain'd unto his heart the boy :
Far differently the mute Oneyda took
His calumet of peace, and cup of joy * ;
As monumental bronze unchanged his look
A soul that pity touch'd, but never shook :
Train'd, from his tree-rock'd cradle † to his bier,
The fierce extremes of good and ill to brook
Impassive—fearing but the shame of fear—
A Stoic of the woods—a man without a tear.—

' Yet deem not goodness on the savage stock
Of Outalissi's heart disdain'd to grow ;
As lives the oak unwither'd on the rock
By storms above, and barrenness below :
He scorn'd his own, who felt another's woe :
And ere the wolf-skin on his back he flung,
Or laced his mocasins, in act to go,
A song of parting to the boy he sung,
Who slept on Albert's couch, nor heard his friendly tongue.

" Sleep, wearied one ! and in the dreaming land
Shouldst thou the spirit of thy mother greet,
Oh ! say, to-morrow, that the white man's hand
Hath pluck'd the thorns of sorrow from thy feet ;
While I in lonely wilderness shall meet
Thy little foot prints—or by traces know
The fountain, where at noon I thought it sweet
To feed thee with the quarry of my bow,
And pour'd the lotus-horn ‡, or slew the mountain roe.

" Adieu ! sweet scion of the rising sun !
But should affliction's storms thy blossom mock,
Then come again—my own adopted one !
And I will graft thee on a noble stock :
The crocodile, the condor of the rock—
Shall be the pastime of thy sylvan wars ;
And I will teach thee, in the battle's shock,

' * *Calumet of Peace.* - The calumet is the Indian name for the ornamented pipe of friendship, which they smoke as a pledge of amity.'

' † *Tree-rock'd cradle.*—The Indian mothers suspend their children in their cradles from the boughs of trees, and let them be rocked by the wind.'

' ‡ From a flower shaped like a horn, which Chateaubriant presumes to be of the lotus kind, the Indians in their travels through the desart often find a draught of dew purer than any other water.'

To pay with Huron blood thy father's scars,
And gratulate his soul rejoicing in the stars!" –

Perhaps it did not become Mr. C. to anticipate the praise which we should not have withholden, by observing of his own song, that it

'True to nature's fervid feelings ran;'

nor can we perfectly discover the metaphysical accuracy of the subjoined definition,—

'For song is but the *eloquence* of *truth*.'

From the son of a northern university, language of this sort may justly be called *imposing*.—The *tearlessness* of Outalissi, (if on this occasion *we* also may be permitted to coin an affected word) is well portrayed, but occupies too large a proportion of the work. It is in fact in the nature of an underplot; and the tears of the savage hero, extorted by the sufferings of his friends, are made as important as the rills which burst from Horeb to revive the fainting Israelites.—The description of the advancing war and of the prepared resistance is full of bold and noble imagery:

'*Scarce* had he utter'd,—when Heav'n's verge extreme
Reverberates the bomb's descending star,—
And sounds that mingled laugh,—and shout,—and scream,
To freeze the blood, in one discordant jar,
Rung to the pealing thunderbolts of war.
Whoop after whoop with rack the ear assail'd;
As if unearthly fiends had burst their bar;
While rapidly the marksman's shot prevail'd;—
And aye, as if for death, some lonely trumpet wail'd.—

'Then look'd they to the hills, where fire o'erhung
The bandit groupes, in one Vesuvian glare;
Or swept, far seen, the tow'r, whose clock unrung,
Told legible that midnight of despair.
She faints,—she falters not,—th' heroic fair,—
As he the sword and plume in haste array'd.
One short embrace—he clasp'd his dearest care—
But hark! what nearer war-drum shakes the glade!
Joy! joy! Columbia's friends are trampling through the shade!

'Then came of every race the mingled swarm,
Far rung the groves, and gleam'd the midnight grass
With flambeau, javelin, and naked arm;
As warriors wheel'd their culverins of brass,
Sprung from the woods, a bold athletic mass,
Whom virtue fires, and liberty combines:
And first the wild Moravian yagers pass;
His plumed host the dark Iberian joins—
And Scotia's sword beneath the Highland thistle shines.

'And

'And in—the buskin'd hunters of the deer,
To Albert's home, with shout and cymbal throng:—
Rous'd by their warlike pomp, and mirth, and cheer,
Old Outalissi woke his battle song,
And, beating with his war-club cadence strong,
Tells how his deep-stung indignation smarts,
Of them that wrapt his house in flames, ere long,
To whet a dagger on their stony hearts,
And smile aveng'd ere yet his eagle spirit parts.—

'Calm, opposite the Christian father rose,
Pale on its venerable brow its rays
Of martyr light the conflagration throws;
One hand upon his lovely child he lays,
And one th' uncover'd croud to silence sways;
While, though the battle flash is faster driv'n,—
Unaw'd, with eye unstartled by the blaze,
He for his bleeding country prays to Heav'n,—
Prays that the men of blood themselves may be forgiven.'

The funeral of Albert and his daughter is sketched with rapidity and spirit:

'For now, to mourn their judge and child, arrives
A faithful band. With solemn rites between,
'Twas sung, how they were lovely in their lives,
And in their deaths had not divided been.
Touch'd by the music, and the melting scene,
Was scarce one tearless eye amidst the crowd:—
Stern warriors, resting on their swords, were seen
To veil their eyes, as pass'd each much-lov'd shroud—
While woman's softer soul in woe dissolv'd aloud.

'Then mournfully the parting bugle *bid*
Its farewell o'er the grave of worth and truth;
Prone to the dust, afflicted Waldegrave hid
His face on earth:—him watch'd in gloomy ruth,
His woodland guide; but words had none to sooth
The grief that knew not consolation's name:
Casting his Indian mantle o'er the youth,
He watch'd, beneath its folds, each burst that came
Convulsive, ague-like, across his shuddering frame!'

The 'wild descant' that ensues appears to us a sober and even a tame calculation. It has evidently been wrought with care, but is neither ardent nor tender.—The picture of the wedded loves of Henry and his Gertrude we have entirely omitted, as by no means creditable to the author's powers of composition:—but, as our opinion here is perhaps singular, it will be fair to extract the stanzas which finish this description:

'At morn, as if beneath a galaxy
Of over-arching groves in blossoms white,

Where all was od'rous scent and harmony,
And gladness to the heart, nerve, ear, and sight:
There if, oh gentle love! I read aright,
The utterance that seal'd thy sacred bond,
'Twas list'ning to these accents of delight.
She hid upon his breast those eyes, beyond
Expression's power to paint, all languishingly fond.

" Flow'r of my life, so lovely, and so lone!
Whom I would rather in this desart meet,
Scorning, and scorn'd by fortune's flow'r, than own
Her pomp and splendors lavish'd at my feet!
Turn not from me thy breath, more exquisite
Than odours cast on heav'n's own shrine—to please—
Give me thy love, than luxury more sweet,
And more than all the wealth that loads the breeze,
When Coromandel's ships return from Indian seas."—

' Then would that home admit them—happier far
Than grandeur's most magnificent saloon—
While here and there, a solitary star
Flush'd in the dark'ning firmament of June;
And silence brought the soul-felt hour, full soon,
Ineffable, which I may not pourtray;
For never did the Hymenean moon
A paradise of hearts more sacred sway,
In all that slept beneath her soft voluptuous ray.'

Let the reader form his own judgment on the natural feeling and clear expression of this passage. We have said enough on the subject of inversions and tortured grammar, and shall here only protest against the change of the old fashioned *Honey-moon* into *Hymenean moon*. We have said enough, indeed, of this publication altogether; of which we have endeavoured to lay before our readers all the parts that are likely to give them pleasure, together with a few specimens of such as demand animadversion. It is unfortunately true that the faults of the work are exceedingly obvious, while its beauties cannot be *eviscerated* without extreme difficulty. In fact, the extraordinary vices of its style could not be compensated by the highest excellences of invention, sentiment, character, and fable; since these always depend on the clearness of the medium through which they are exhibited: but that it does possess these merits in a very eminent degree, we own that we have hitherto been unable to discern. On the whole, we think that the only service, which can be rendered by this poem to the reputation of its author, is by lightening for the future that load of public expectation, under which his poetical spirit appears to have sunken, in the effort of producing this additional specimen.

The

The volume is *eked out* by ballads and minor poems, all of which, having appeared already (we believe) more than once in public, may be now dismissed without particular observation.

Den.

ART. III. *An Account of Jamaica and its Inhabitants.* By a Gentleman long resident in the West Indies. 8vo. pp. 305. 7s. 6d. Boards. Longman and Co. 1808.

THE greater part of the British public are still so imperfectly informed in regard to our trans-atlantic possessions, that we open with considerable satisfaction a volume which promises an account of the most important of them, from the pen of a writer who has had the benefit of long acquaintance with the spot. When an author describes himself as resident in Jamaica, the natural inference is that he is a man of business, in some branch; and the reader, who limits his expectations to the plain statements which are to be expected from such a quarter, will not be disappointed in the book now before us. It is on the whole a work of considerable utility; since the author is perfectly familiar with his subject, and his knowlege is the result of actual experience. Its chief value indeed is as a record of local information, or as a fund of materials to the philosophic inquirer; since the views of the writer, when he leaves the level track of description to unravel causes or deduce conclusions, are neither brilliant nor profound. On the score of good intention, however, he has a claim to our unreserved approbation; he writes with complete exemption from personal or party motives; and his arguments are directed to the support of justice and liberality.

A brief sketch, or rather notice, of the history of Jamaica, from its capture by the English in 1655, properly introduces the volume. The passage from Europe, the aspect of the shores of Jamaica in the eyes of a stranger arriving in crop-time, and the diversified and romantic scenery of the interior, are next described. The following passage (page 10) contains several interesting remarks on the state of the island:

'There are few countries in the world better watered than Jamaica; for, besides the countless springs and rivulets which issue from its mountains, there are many fine rivers in various parts of it. None of these are, however, navigable, excepting Black river, in the parish of St. Elizabeth, on which flat-bottomed boats bring down the sugar, rum, and other produce from the interior of that parish to the port of Black river: on some of the others, as the Rio Cobre, &c. canoes and small boats can sail for some way up. As to the smaller streams, it is impossible to particularize them; suffice it to say, that in many parts of the island seven or eight springs, all or most of them perennial,

nial, are known to take their rise within the circuit of two or three miles.

'Jamaica is divided into three counties, Middlesex, Surrey, and Cornwall; and these are subdivided into twenty parishes. It contains one city (Kingston), and 35 towns and villages. The principal of these are Montego Bay (which for size, population, and trade, may be ranked second to Kingston), Falmouth, St Jago de la Vega (the seat of government), Port Royal, Savannah la Mar, Morant Bay, Port Morant, Lucea, Port Maria, Old Harbour, St. Ann's (or St. John), Lacovia, &c. Kingston is a large city, and has a very extensive trade. Its population may be set down at upwards of thirty thousand souls of all descriptions. It is governed by a mayor, aldermen, and council, and has a town guard of forty men, who act under the police of the city, and are of great service in protecting the inhabitants, and preventing riot and disorder. There are in it some handsome buildings in the West India style. Kingston is, however, a hot, and, at times, a very unhealthy place. Many of the gentlemen there have pens, or country seats, in the cool parts of the vicinity, particularly the Liguanea mountains, to which they occasionally retire, and where they breathe for a while a more pure and salubrious air. There are some very laudable institutions here for charitable purposes, particularly the free-school, and asylum for deserted negroes; the latter is of a nature so benevolent and necessary, that none of the parishes ought to be without one.

'Montego Bay is a thriving and pretty populous town; but it was still more so previous to 1795, in which year it suffered very severely by a fire, which consumed two thirds of the town, and destroyed a great deal of other property: the whole of the houses that were destroyed have not since been rebuilt, a proof that this town is not now so populous as it then was. There is here a handsome courthouse, lately built, and a neat little church, but the gaol is a most wretched one, and is, indeed, a disgrace to the parish. This town is the capital and sea port of St. James's.

'Falmouth not many years back was a small petty village; but it has risen rapidly to be a considerable town, through the increasing trade and cultivation of the parish (Trelawney), of which it is the sea port, and now bids fair to rival Montego Bay in wealth and prosperity. There is a good church here, and a hydraulic machine for supplying the inhabitants with water.

'St. Jago de la Vega, or Spanish Town (as it is sometimes called), is situated in St. Catherine's, and is, as before noticed, the seat of government. Here, too, are the public offices; so that this town, though not a large one, from its containing the government and assembly houses, and various other public buildings, may be considered as the genteelest and handsomest town in the island. It is intended, too, that some considerable additions and improvements in the public buildings here are to take place. Here is a temple and statue erected to the memory of Lord Rodney, whose name the people of Jamaica honour as they would that of a tutelary deity.

'Port Royal is a middling large but mean-looking town, standing on a narrow peninsula or neck of land. It is chiefly remarkable for

its excellent fortifications, and naval yard, the harbour of Port Royal being the rendezvous for our men of war in this part of the world. Most of the inhabitants here are people of colour. This town was totally swallowed up by an earthquake, in the year 1692.

'Savannah la Mar is a hot, dirty, and mean-looking place, inhabited chiefly by people of colour, who keep lodging houses for the accommodation of those who attend the Cornwall assize-court, this place having the honour of being the county town, on account of its central situation. In this wretched place, however, the best fare is provided, for which a most enormous price is charged, viz. six or seven dollars per day. Savannah la Mar once suffered greatly from an earthquake.

'The houses in this island are of various forms and constructions. Some have stone foundations, others are entirely built of wood; some have jealousies, some sash windows with Venetian blinds, and some have a mixture of both. Most of them have piazzas, either open or with jealousies, and many have balconies. The apartments within, besides the piazzas, are a large hall, sometimes a recess as a sitting-room, or boudoir, a pantry, a closet, and bed-rooms. The kitchen, or *cook-room*, as it is here called, is a separate building, being never part of the dwelling-house as in Europe; this is highly proper, in order to obviate accidents by fire.

'In the towns there is a wretched intermixture of handsome and spacious houses with vile hovels and disgraceful *sheds*, inhabited by free people of colour, who keep petty hucksters' shops, and by low white people, who vend liquors and give rise to many disorderly and indecent scenes. This evil ought to be rectified if possible. As the city of Kingston is now chartered as a corporate body, it will probably take the lead.'

In treating of that destructive malady, the yellow fever, the present author is disposed to ascribe its fatal effects, in a great degree, to the influence of fear on the patient; an opinion which we have found general among those who, like this gentleman, had ceased by long residence in the West Indies to be in any danger of such attacks. Admitting that the idea may be sanctioned by a considerable share of truth, we are notwithstanding led to believe that this, like other West India maladies, is as yet very imperfectly understood; and that the mortality of our countrymen in tropical climates might be exceedingly lessened by a careful application of medical science. Of the truth of this remark, we have here a very striking example:

'Young men, just arrived in the island, are peculiarly liable to febrile disorders; an excellent precaution against which would be their residing, if possible, in a cool and healthy part of the interior for a few months, as a sort of seasoning. What strikingly evinces the propriety of such a step is the following circumstance: — About twelve years ago (from 1806), His Majesty's 16th regiment of foot arrived at Montego Bay from Halifax. It was then about 500 strong;

strong; and in the first year it was quartered at that place it lost from two to three hundred men by sickness. But since the Maroon war, the bulk of the regiments stationed in St. James's has been quartered in barracks built on the scite of the old Maroon town, (about twenty miles up in the interior), since which time the part of the regiments posted there has been *uniformly as healthy as if quartered in the heart of England*. Seven hundred of the 55th regiment, some time back stationed there, had at one time not one sick man in the hospital, and only one had died in a space of six months This spot is, therefore, very properly converted into head-quarters for the regiments. There are, indeed, two circumstances to be observed with respect to the mortality in the 16th regiment; it was injudiciously drawn from a very cold country to a hot tropical climate, and the soldiers had unfortunately a too free access to spirituous liquors, the very bane of the best constitutions in a climate like this.'

After his description of the physical character of the island, the author proceeds to give an account of its political constitution. The office of Governor is twofold, civil and military, uniting the duties of Chancellor with those of Commander of the Forces. This high station is usually conferred on a military man, who in general is entirely ignorant of law; yet the satisfactory manner in which, it is universally admitted, these gentlemen administer justice, should afford an impressive lesson to those who maintain that a technical knowlege of law is indispensible in a judge. It shews that, in the catalogue of judicial requisites, this technical knowlege is of much less consequence than integrity and good sense: or, to speak more generally, it is one proof in addition to the many which we may easily find at home as well as abroad, that the administration of justice is in itself a very simple affair, and that it has been rendered complicated only by the perversions which our own institutions have introduced into it;—perversions originating chiefly in the mistakes of well intentioned legislators, and sometimes, but more rarely, in the artifices of a particular class, who conceived themselves to be interested in retarding the progress and increasing the expence of judicial procedure.

The assembly of Jamaica is elected by the freeholders, and two representatives are returned from each parish. All money-bills originate here in the same way as in the British House of Commons; and in general the Assembly lays claim to a parity of rights and privileges with that House. The history of the island (as stated in our Review for August last, p. 349) shews that the Assembly has, from the beginning, conducted itself with spirit and independence; and on the difference which took place a few months ago with the present Governor, on the refusal of General Carmichael (the second in command in the island) to attend at their bar, the members gave proofs

of their resolute determination to maintain the authority of their predecessors. Amid all the distresses which have of late years befallen our West India planters, the consolation remains to them of having an independent representation;—a representation composed of men who have exactly the same interest as their constituents, who are unbiassed by Government influence, and who are invested with power sufficient both to carry into effect colonial improvements, and to make the voice of reason be heard in the mother-country in behalf of those measures of relief which can proceed from Parliament alone. This would be an admirable advantage, if our colonists knew how to use it, and were they thoroughly instructed in regard to the nature of commerce and the principles which ought to regulate their intercourse with the parent-state. Had this been the case, they would not have laboured under ten years of distress; millions would not have been expended by creditors, in courts of law, in fruitless endeavours to recover their claims; the debtor would not have continued to delude himself with the notion that his advantage consisted in opposing and delaying payments, at whatever expence; the field-husbandry of the island, as well as the manufacture of produce within doors, would have been much more rapidly improved; and, by the gradual diffusion of accurate notions of trade, a shock would have been given to an opinion extremely plausible in appearance, and which, to the incalculable injury of the Colonies, seems to remain in full force at home—namely, that the profit of Great Britain is the greater, the more closely she draws the ties of monopoly, and the more produce she compels her Colonies to send to her. The colonists, however, have been deficient in a thorough knowlege of their case, and the result has been correspondent;—they have paid the price of error and credulity—of error, in the misapprehension of their own interests, and of credulity in imagining that relief would come from any quarter but themselves. Whenever the time shall arrive that their minds are opened to a more comprehensive view of their situation, they will derive the most essential benefits from their separate legislature. In these advantages the mother-country will equally participate; the interest of the two, although hitherto considered as distinct, being in fact as much the same as the interest of any two counties in England; and the common prosperity in this respect is much more likely to be advanced by an Assembly confining its attention principally to this subject, than by one which would account that subject among its secondary duties.

The abuse mentioned in the ensuing paragraph (page 38) is such, that we deem it our duty to assist in giving it notoriety:

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'The office of secretary is here a very lucrative one indeed, perhaps second to none but that of the governor himself. The fees attached to it are very considerable: every patent commission, and other instrument, has its stated price, and even the records of office can only be opened with a *golden key*. It is pretty shrewdly to be suspected, that the *price* of sinecure or nominal appointments is rather arbitrary than specific. It is by no means unusual to offer from an hundred to five hundred pounds currency for these nominal appointments: they are eagerly sought for as soon as vacant, by people who can afford the money, either for the honour of the thing, or in order to be exempted from militia duty; for as there is little or no duty to perform, neither is there any emolument accruing. This sale of nominal appointments is indeed often carried to a most reprehensible length. The secretary under a late governor, on the eve of the latter's departure from his government, eager to reap the golden harvest while the *sun* in which he basked had not yet sunk below the horizon, made, it is said, a pretty active use of this privilege, and not always with a very scrupulous attention as to recommendations, &c. So sensible was the succeeding chief magistrate of the impropriety of many of those appointments, that he for some time hesitated whether he would confirm them: and his predecessor no doubt must have felt that he had sometimes too implicitly given the sanction of his name on these occasions. This species of traffic, to say the least of it, is an indiscriminating way of giving ease and honour, if *honour* it may be called. By this unjust distribution, able-bodied men are improperly exempted from that duty, in a military capacity, which they owe to their country, as well as others; and situations which should be the reward of merit, the mead of talent, or the repose of age, are thus scattered fortuitously among those who can afford the most alluring price.'

Of regular troops, the number in Jamaica is generally two thousand; and in addition to their usual pay, they have a handsome allowance from the island. Here are also several *West India Regiments*, composed of negroe soldiers and white officers; an establishment which this author, like other Colonists, considers as of hazardous tendency. As a remedy for this danger, he proposes to send these West India regiments to the East Indies, and to bring over an adequate number of Sepoys in their stead. The male population of whites in Jamaica being liable, with few exceptions, to serve as militia, that corps is numerous, and can bring into the field between eight and ten thousand effective men. They are tolerably well disciplined: but complaints have long been made of gross partiality in the distribution of commissions; raw inexperienced youths, the sons of men of influence, being made officers at the age of fifteen or sixteen. — The author very properly recommends that, in a climate in which rapid marching so soon disqualifies troops for action, carriages should be kept in readiness for their conveyance on any emergency.

Arms

Arms, accoutrements, and dress ought to be as light as possible; and riflemen would be of incalculable utility in a country which is so much intersected as Jamaica is with woods, mountains, and rocks.

After having discussed the political state of the island, the writer proceeds to describe its animal and vegetable productions. The animals common in tropical climates are sufficiently known to make it unnecessary to enlarge on this part of the subject:—but the subsequent anecdote (page 82) deserves to be noticed:

'As to the power of fascination which it is said the snake possesses, the author never knew but one instance that had the appearance of it:—on riding along a road one day, he observed a little bird hopping, with a kind of circular and feeble motion, round one particular spot; he desired his servant to go and seize the little flutterer; but just as he had got to the spot, and almost laid his hand on it, a large black snake darted away from under the grass, and at the same instant the little bird flew away. Extreme terror and strong surprise produce a species of fascination, and this probably is the kind which charms and arrests the hapless bird, and finally draws him into the mouth of the wily serpent.'

The bread-fruit tree has been introduced into Jamaica above a dozen years, and has multiplied so fast that every part of the island abounds with it. The negroes, however, are not fond of it, preferring their plantain and yams to this newly-imported food. In the event of a hurricane, it would be a much more tedious matter to reinstate the bread-fruit-tree than the plantain. The interruption of supplies from America has made our planters direct their attention to the raising of provisions in their own grounds, for which the most ample field presents itself; the favourite root, the yam, being so productive that the labour of one negroe would probably be equal to the support of fifty.

In the following extracts, our readers will have a fair specimen of the author's style, and will gain a distinct idea both of the situation of a West India estate and of the mode of managing the negroes:

'The situation best adapted for a West India estate is a fertile level or valley, well watered, and at an easy convenient distance from the sea side But few estates in Jamaica can, from the nature of the country, be so favourably situated. The greater part are more or less intersected with ridges of mountains, a number are without the conveniency of contiguous water, and many are necessarily placed at a great distance from the *barquedier*, or shipping place. If an estate lies in a mountainous district, the hills on which the sugar cane is planted, are the better for being of easy acclivity, and facing towards the rising sun. But the steepest acclivities sometimes consist

sist of a most fertile soil, and produce the most luxuriant canes: there is, however, a great additional difficulty in removing them from these eminencies to the mill; and a remote estate requires double the number of oxen which are on one situated by the sea side, in order to transport its produce to the shipping place. An estate which has a water-mill, saves considerably in stock; as one without such conveniency, must work their mills with cattle and mules: if, however, it be situated near the sea, it may be supplied with a wind-mill. In the interior the breeze is too unsteady and precarious for such a machine, and is too liable to be intercepted by the natural inequalities of the country. The works of an estate, or building for the manufacturing of the produce, are placed in the most central situation of the cane land; at the same time with an eye to other conveniencies, as a stream of water (this being a most essential advantage, in many points of view), an easiness of access, and a proper extent of eligible ground for building on, and for a good sizeable area around for drying trash, &c. These buildings are a mill (sometimes two, a water and cattle mill, or cattle-mill and wind-mill, or two cattle-mills, according to the size of the estate;) a boiling-house, a curing-house (where the sugar is cured), a distilling-house; one, two, or three trash-houses (for drying the cane-trash for fuel); one or two mule sheds; and a cooper's and carpenter's shop. The other buildings on the estate are the proprietor's house, the overseer's house, an hospital for sick negroes, and sometimes a house for the surgeon; though sometimes he resides in the overseer's house. The land is portioned out in the following manner: If a large estate, consisting of about fifteen hundred acres, about a fifth part is planted in canes; two fifths are laid out in guinea grass and common pasture; one fifth is occupied by plantain walks, &c and negroe grounds; and the remaining fifth consists in woods, ruinates, and land lying fallow. This proportion varies, however, according to circumstances. The fields of canes and pasture are enclosed either with logwood fences or stone walls; the former is most common, and, when kept in neat order, are a beautiful ornament to an estate; it much resembles the hawthorn. The fields of canes contain from ten to twenty acres, having between them roads or intervals of twelve or fifteen feet wide. The negroes' houses are grouped together, and stand isolated from all the other buildings, forming a sort of rustic village, inclosed by a stone wall, and displaying an intermixture of gardens and various fruit-trees, which has a pleasing sylvan appearance —

'Formerly the slaves on the estates were cruelly and injudiciously made to perform much supernumerary work, at improper times. After the labours of crop were over, and they should have enjoyed a little additional respite, they were, on many properties, harassed to a shameful degree. Not even the light of heaven circumscribed their labours, but they were made to work for hours after it was dark, and for hours before light dawned in the morning. At present their labour is light, and this supernumerary toil is no longer exacted. On a property which has five hundred acres of land in cultivation (including pasture and provisions) there are two hundred slaves, about half of which number are constantly employed in the agricultural duties

of

of the estate, and manufacturing the produce. In England, an estate of this extent would be cultivated by the tenth of this number. It is true, the mode of cultivation is here different. This proportion shews at least that the work the slaves here perform is far from being excessive. The routine of their daily work is as follows: They assemble in the fields at day break; about ten in the forenoon, they are allowed about half an hour to eat their breakfast, which is brought out into the fields by the negro cooks; at one they go to dinner, and in about two hours after are again assembled in the fields (either by a bell, or, as is most usual, by the sound of a conque-shell, which is heard at a very great distance); and they draw off from work in the twilight of the evening. Once a fortnight, out of crop, they are allowed a day; but during crop none can be allowed, as that is too busy a season for any extra allowance of time. Perhaps, if one day out of every week throughout the year was allowed, besides Sunday, which should rather be deemed a day of rest, in conformity with our holy religion, it would not be more than humanity entitles them to; and if that were impracticable, as in truth it is during the season of crop, some compensation might be allowed in lieu of the deprivation of it. At Christmas they are allowed three days, and at the end of crop, or harvest-home, one day to make merry. Though the season of crop brings along with it many additional labours, yet is it the gayest and most cheerful throughout the year to the negroes. At this time they seem animated with a livelier flow of spirits, and merriment and song every where resound: in short, a stranger, with the anticipation of being a witness of nought but depression and misery, would be astonished and delighted with this exterior shew of happiness, both at this time and at Christmas, when they give way to unrestrained festivity. It is difficult to say, whether the juice of the sugar-cane has any effect in elevating their spirits; certain it is, that it has a very evident one in promoting their health. Indeed, so salubrious is this liquor, that not only the negroes, but all the different animals on the estate are fond of, and thrive wonderfully on it. The negroes are formed into different gangs, according to their age and strength. The first gang consists of the ablest hands (of both sexes) on the estate; the second gang of less able hands, and boys and girls; and the third, or small gang, of children from eight to twelve years of age, who are employed in weeding the young plant-canes, and such other light work. The two principal gangs are followed by black drivers, as they are called, who superintend the work under the book-keepers, and carry whips, as instruments of occasional correction, which it is the duty of the book-keeper, in the absence of the overseer, to see they do not unnecessarily or maliciously inflict, and only in a moderate degree. It were perhaps to be wished, that this instrument were laid aside, at least only used in cases of marked delinquency, and a mode of common correction, less revolting, substituted; for, however seldom this instrument may be used, it is in itself a disgusting and unnatural thing.'

An agricultural society having been lately formed in Jamaica by some gentlemen of landed property, the present writer ap-

plauds the intention of the institution, but is doubtful of its success. We are aware that, from various circumstances, the progress of such a society in the acquisition and dissemination of agricultural knowlege must be extremely slow: but we would advise the planters to look for relief much rather from their own improvements than from Acts of Parliament. Their parliamentary interest is too weak to carry a point against any considerable opposition; and moreover the benefit of legislative preferences is temporary, while the benefit of practical amelioration is permanent. The former is obtained by a struggle against persons of adverse interests, who imagine themselves injured, and are disposed to watch every opportunity of getting the ungracious edict cancelled; while the latter injures no one, but proves a general blessing by the addition which it makes to the progress of human improvement.

The kind of writing in which this author seems most desirous to elevate his style is the descriptive; and though it is very clear that literature has not been his profession, yet his attempts to convey a vivid impression are not unsuccessful, at least when directed to objects of nature. Indeed, the scenery of Jamaica is sufficiently striking to animate minds possessed of less sensibility than we are disposed to ascribe to this gentleman. His principal efforts at description are the picture of a hurricane (page 29.), and of a December evening and morning (page 116.) We extract the latter:

'The sun was just setting below the western horizon, and the heavens were mildly irradiated with his farewell beams; it was clear and serene all around; the air was mild and bland, and the distant green eminences gleamed with a reflected lustre. Nought disturbed the stillness of the scene, save the busy and officious musquito, who is kind enough to warn you of her approach by an unwelcome buzzing in your ear; the screachings of the wild parrots, who, in detached parties, skim the arch of heaven, in their retreat to their haunts; and now and then the scream of the clucking-hen, an unsociable bird, delighting in the solitude of the deepest retreats.

'The following is a landscape at sun-rise in this month. From the lofty summit of a mountain is beheld an extensive circuit of country. The scenery at the foot of the mountain is lively and vivid; the negroes, in gangs, are employed in the fields cutting canes, or weeding pastures; numerous herds of oxen, &c. graze in the reaped fields, or verdant acclivities. An endless diversity of hill, valley, wood, mountain, and defile, interspersed with clusters of the bamboo cane, copses of underwood, pastures shaded with lofty trees, plantain walks, ruinates, and extensive fields of sugar-canes, chequer and adorn the face of the country; while from the works of many of the properties, columns of smoke perpendicularly ascend to a great height in the pure heavens—and activity and stir is apparent around them.

At a greater distance, an extensive and beautiful valley, rich in the products of the soil, opens to the eye. The morning mists, which still partially hang over it, have the illusive appearance to the beholder of a vast lake resting on its bosom: behind it are the evanescent hills, losing themselves by degrees in the clouds. At a still greater distance, appears the ocean—still, calm, and unruffled, the sea-breeze not yet having curled its smooth glassy surface. The air is serene, the sky cloudless, and the sun, now immerged into sight, appears as if resting on the bend of a distant rising while he gladdens and illumines the whole scene! Innumerable wild flowers, shrubs, and blossoms, now exhale their sweetest perfumes; and the birds, who retire silently into the shade from the mid-day heat, now warble their renovated song.'

The great misfortune of Jamaica, as of our other West India colonies, is the want of education on the spot. Children are removed from the parent's eye at a tender age, and sent to the mother-country, where a boarding school ill supplies the absence of paternal vigilance. They return to the West Indies with the appearance of a finished education, but generally without any serious impression of its value, or of the necessity of following up what they have only begun to learn; and here the opportunity of farther improvement may be said to be at an end, since the society, into which the male part of them at least are liable to fall, is often more calculated to degrade than to instruct. To explain the means of gradually amending the state of society in the West Indies, and of rendering the members of it more intelligent and more virtuous, would much exceed our limits; and we must content ourselves with a short extract from the volume before us (p. 208.), which will be found to justify the praise bestowed at the beginning of this article on the moral tendency of the book. After having lamented the improper state of morals in the West Indies, and the inefficiency of the means hitherto adopted to amend them, the author says:

'But let innocent, elegant, and rational pleasures be a little more encouraged here; let a polite taste for literature be diffused, at least among the independent; let the means of education be more fully and liberally established; let the great and leading men (*married* as well as single) exhibit, in their moral conduct, correct examples of virtue, propriety, decency; let them foster and encourage this disposition in their dependants, by their countenance, favour, and assistance; and, above all, let the duties and ordinances of religion be more fully understood, and better respected, and the good consequences would soon appear. Virtue and reason would then, in some measure, re-assume their rights; self-love would be enlisted on the side of duty; men would be impelled, by still stronger motives than those of shame, to avoid the open and gross violation of the social duties; one passion would be engaged to counteract another; the

voice of interest would check and intimidate the licentious sallies of passion; instead of that indecent disregard of religious and moral duty; instead of that general debasement of illicit sexual intercourse, so much complained of by the wise and thinking part of the West Indians themselves; instead of that universal laxity of manners, which will ultimately prove the ruin of the country; men would at least *strive* to be virtuous and decent; they would at least *endeavour* to avoid the semblance of a licentious and dissolute people.'

We are glad to find the author bearing testimony to the great amelioration which has taken place within these twenty-five years in the treatment of the negroes; and humanity has been seen, in this as in other cases, to carry its reward along with it. Formerly, the white inhabitants were in perpetual apprehension of insurrection, as the stanchion-windows and loop-holes of old houses still testify: but at present they have no need of such defences.

The article in our Review for August last, to which we have already alluded, treats explicitly of several subjects contained in the volume under notice, and renders it unnecessary, after the specimens which we have given of the writer's composition, to dwell at any length on matters that are already known to our readers. These topics are the characters of the Mulattoes and Jews, the humanity of the white master to his Negroes, the amount of island-population, and the intercourse of our West India colonies with America. On the last topic, we cannot forbear to notice a coincidence between the present author and Mr. Renny, whose book was the subject of the article just mentioned; and it is remarkable as tending to shew how much the cause of justice and liberality would gain by an unremitted pursuit of knowlege. Both these gentlemen are zealously interested for the West Indies; both of them perceive the advantage to our colonies of intercourse with the United States; and both accordingly claim its permission on behalf of the planters. Yet both conceive themselves obliged to make the admission that this intercourse would be injurious to the mother-country. Now had they carried farther their researches on the principles of commerce, had they ascertained the nature of capital and the causes of its augmentation, they might not only have avoided an admission so likely to be fatal to their argument, but they might have proved to the British nation that its interest would be promoted by the intercourse in question, in a degree which would be similar to that of its colonies.

We must now say a few words on the present author's defects. The style of his volume is sometimes disfigured by considerable inaccuracies and inelegancies. We have at one place

place (p. 24.) 'for to gratify,' and at another (p. 122.) 'contingencies of chance.' Circumstances also of too humble a class are introduced into the text, instead of being put in notes at the bottom, where their inequality to other topics would not have been felt. Finally, the author's observations are sometimes of that obvious cast which must subject them to the character of common-place. As a literary composition, therefore, the faults of this book are considerable; but these are greatly outweighed by its merits; because, while it is not devoid of claims to approbation for occasional elegance of language, it has an undoubted title to favour for the uniform substantial value of its matter.

Lowe.

ART. IV. *An Illustration of the General Evidence establishing the Reality of Christ's Resurrection.* By George Cook, A.M. Minister of Laurencekirk. 8vo. pp. 323. 7s. Boards. Longman and Co. 1808.

"*If Christ be not risen,* (says St. Paul,) *then is our preaching vain, and your faith is also vain.*" This text, which places the importance of the Resurrection of our Blessed Saviour in the most striking point of view, will serve to the end of time as a complete justification of every attempt to illustrate the evidence of that momentous event, on which all the sublime and consoling hopes of the Christian must be established. To be satisfied of the reality of this pledge and assurance of immortality is of more value than any actual possession of sublunary good; for though lawyers may make out the conveyances of estates to us "to have and to hold for ever," experience teaches us that our tenure is restricted to a few years, and that those are embittered with sorrow. The hope of a future existence has always been the buoyant principle of reflecting man; and the distinguishing feature of the Christian Religion is that it gives a power and a weight to this doctrine, which unassisted nature could not possibly obtain. It supersedes speculative reasoning by building our faith on a *fact*, and by pointing to the Resurrection of its Great Founder as the forerunner of our own.

We require not, therefore, from Mr. Cook any apology for the present undertaking, though many have preceded him; we expect not originality, but an able exhibition of argument; we ask for no new illustrations, but ability to do justice to this most interesting of subjects. Whether we respect the manifest irreligion of the age, the lukewarmness and worldly spirit that are visible in the Christian church, or the alarming growth of infidelity, it seems imperiously necessary to have

recourse to first principles, to examine the foundations of religion, and to prove that the hopes which animated the Apostles are not less stable than glorious. Here the members of Establishments and sectarian communities, the clergy and the laity, are equally concerned; and here Trinitarians and Unitarians must be of one mind, because if Christ be not risen the hope of all is altogether vain. Though Mr. Cook's treatise cannot be said to be complete, it contains some strong reasoning; and, from the specimen which we have of the author's talents, we wish that he had not confined himself to the *General Evidence.* Mr. Gilbert West's celebrated "Observations on the History and Evidences of the Resurrection of Jesus Christ" include a portion of matter, which infidels will insist on having brought into the debate, and which in fact ought not to be slightly passed over; we mean the distinct narratives of this interesting event which are given in the four Evangelists. The work of this layman, it is said, has been effectual in the conversion of several Deists; and surely a plan which has been so successful ought to a certain extent to have been followed, after which Mr. Cook's arguments might have been added as auxiliaries. Mr. West's method was first "to lay down the order in which the several incidents related by the Evangelists appear to have happened; next to make some observations on the method and manner in which proofs of this astonishing event were laid before the Apostles, and in the third place to add an exact and rigorous examination of the proofs themselves." To this most important part of the inquiry, Mr. Cook has not, in our judgment, paid sufficient attention; while, as if to supply this deficiency in the outset, he has in the last part of his essay wandered into an elaborate disquisition of the circumstances under which Christianity combated and supplanted those systems that were hostile to it:—matters which relate rather to the general history of the Church, than to the particular fact of the Resurrection of our Lord.

It must not, however, be supposed that by these hints, which are thrown out chiefly for the consideration of the author, we mean to undervalue the work before us; which, as far as Mr. C.'s plan has extended, is reputable to him. His illustration is divided into four parts. After having made some preliminary remarks on the possibility of a Resurrection, and on the sufficiency of such a fact to prove a divine interposition, Mr. Cook proceeds, 1st, to state the evidence of the truth of the Resurrection, derived from the prophecies of Jesus, conjoined with his wisdom; and the improbability, as these predictions respecting himself were known to his enemies,

mies, of his not perceiving that if these were not fulfilled he would effectually defeat his own scheme; 2dly, to consider the evidence for the truth of the Resurrection derived from the fact, or the amount of the circumstantial evidence; 3dly, the evidence for the truth of the Resurrection, arising from the testimony of those who were witnesses of it; and 4thly, the evidence derived from the success which attended the preaching of the Apostles, founded on the fact that Christ rose from the dead.

The last two parts are the most laboured. In the third, Mr. C. argues with great energy to shew, in two distinct sections, that the Apostles could not have been deceived themselves, and that it is in the highest degree improbable that they should entertain a wish of deceiving others. On the former topic he observes:

'If Jesus was not restored to life on the third day, as they said, his body must, on that day, have been either in the possession of the apostles, or of their enemies; in the former case, the most sceptical cannot doubt that the apostles knew that he was still dead; in the latter, even granting that they had before been somehow unaccountably mistaken, their mistake would have been completely removed the moment that they announced it, because the rulers and pharisees, who were most eager to extirpate Christianity, would have triumphantly produced the body.'

To prove that the Apostles could have no desire of deceiving others, the author adverts to their own disappointment, and to the presumption in favour of their veracity which is derived from a variety of considerations; especially as they had no passion to gratify, and as they endured suffering and death rather than they would retract their testimony. We shall make some extracts from this part of the treatise:

'It tends very much to establish the veracity of the apostles, that they had been themselves much disappointed by the death of Jesus, and must, from the nature of the case, have been completely so, if he never rose from the dead. When they first renounced the comforts of domestic life, and the place which they held in society, that they might follow him, they were prepossessed by the idea, that, notwithstanding the meanness of his appearance, he was their Messiah; that at a convenient season he would proclaim his sovereignty, and would confer upon them the most exalted situations in his kingdom. It required the most delicate and continued instruction on the part of Jesus to remove these prejudices; to convince them that his kingdom was not of this world; that it was necessary to look beyond it for the happpiness which was to reward those who were sincerely attached to him.

'But this hope of eternal life which ultimately, in a great measure, reconciled them to the humble condition, to the poverty in

which they were to continue while upon earth, rested entirely upon the divine mission of Jesus, or upon his resurrection; he himself often told them so; and indeed it was so evident, that all of them, without any particular information, must have perceived it.

'If, then, they saw him, in place of rising from the grave, mouldering into dust, they must have been satisfied that all his promises were deceitful; that the delightful prospects of future bliss which he had set before them could never be realized. How severe must have been this disappointment; with what feelings of indignation would they reflect on the memory of a man who had not only deceived them, but who, by doing so, had led them to renounce all which was most dear to them? In what manner would men in this situation naturally act? They could not fail to regret their credulity, to think with much sorrow on the part which they had acted; they would be eager to hide themselves from those who had been the most frequent witnesses of their delusion; to return to the stations in life which they had abandoned; and to renew the kindly intercourse, which their ill directed zeal had induced them to suspend.

'And, accordingly, we find that the apostles did act precisely in this manner. Depressed by the melancholy event of their Master's death, and dreading that he was for ever separated from them, they dispersed, and resumed the professions which for him they had forsaken. And if they thus acted when their hopes were rather shaken than destroyed, is it not natural to conclude, that they would be confirmed in this course of conduct, when they found that what they dreaded had actually happened.'—

'It is equally evident that the apostles had no hope of acquiring wealth. It was the constant subject of their Master's preaching and of their own, that this world should hold a very low place in our affections; that excessive attachment to it is inconsistent with that elevated piety, and that disinterested generosity which we are formed to acquire; in short, they endeavoured to destroy the power of those mercenary considerations which so often corrupt the heart, and to expand the noblest feelings which adorn human nature. In perfect harmony with a design so amiable and refined, they never grasped at riches; they continued, during their ministry, in the same poverty in which they had been before they attached themselves to Jesus, and they even exercised those mechanical employments in which they had been initiated, that they might not be under the necessity of requesting support from the converts, who would have gladly shared with them the abundance which they enjoyed. It is established by the writings of authors, who certainly had no design to applaud the Christians, that the attention of the primitive disciples was directed to objects very different from the accumulation of wealth; that they even shewed an indifference to it, which the particular circumstances in which they were placed rendered very amiable, but which, in the ordinary state of society, it is by no means a duty to cherish.

'If, then, Jesus Christ did not rise from the dead, it must be admitted that a number of men changed all their habits of life; submitted

submitted to incessant, and, as they believed, hopeless labour, for the purpose of representing an impostor as the greatest benefactor of the human race, although they could thus gain nothing which they could hold in estimation; although there was no motive which could, if they were constituted like other men, even in the slightest degree incline them to act as they did.' —

'But what, if Jesus did not rise from the dead, was the precise state of the case. They displayed this courage when mental fortitude, that resolution which arises from the consciousness of rectitude, had ceased; the change in their conduct was accomplished by what should have had quite a different effect, by what should have satisfied them of their prudence, or at least of their good fortune, in having declined to die with their Master, and should have determined them to submit to no more inconveniency upon his account, by producing absolute conviction, that through their credulity they had been engaged in a bad cause, in a cause to which it would be criminal, and even impious, any longer to avow an attachment.

'If, therefore, the resurrection never happened, there is no sufficient account, no account at all, indeed, for one of the most wonderful facts which occurs in the history of the human mind; the transition so rapidly made by the apostles, from the excess of timidity, to cool, steady, and long continued fortitude; nay, this singular resolution must be ascribed to what every person may be sensible ought, according to every principle in our nature, to have proved a complete security against it.'—

'If the resurrection never took place, as the falsehood of their assertions must have been certainly known to those who declared that they were the witnesses of that event, their continuing to profess their belief in Jesus as the messenger of heaven, and the Saviour of the world, implies, that a number of men who had been much deceived, and most cruelly disappointed, became, in consequence of that disappointment, fervently attached to the memory of the man who had deceived them; that with the avowed design of promoting his honour, of procuring for him the love, the veneration, and the gratitude of mankind, they engaged in an undertaking which, to persons possessed of their measure of judgment, must have appeared impracticable; that they ascribed to this teacher, doctrines which would not naturally have suggested themselves to men in their situation of life, doctrines which subverted those opinions and sentiments which from infancy they had been taught to revere, and to which, conceiving them to be sanctioned by divine authority, they were most firmly attached, even when they believed in the divinity of their master; that rather than renounce this scheme of imposture, the success of which could be attended with no benefit to them, and could only give currency to what in their hearts they must have detested as impious, they patiently submitted to the most dreadful tortures, and even voluntarily exposed themselves to death, with the composure and joyful anticipation which would have been natural only if their pretensions had been well founded; and to sum up the whole, that they acted with this astonishing degree of fortitude and resolution, although they were constitutionally

constitutionally timid, and had been betrayed by that timidity into conduct which, when they reflected upon it, they severely condemned.

'If there be any man who sees no difficulty in admitting all this, in reconciling it with human nature, he must be allowed to believe that the apostles were impostors, and that the resurrection of Christ was devised by them for the purpose of deceiving the world, or rather for no purpose whatever; but I cannot persuade myself that any one who looks into his own bosom, who endeavours from consciousness, or from experience, to investigate those radical principles, which must, while we are men, influence and determine our conduct, will hesitate to admit, that if, under all the circumstances which have been stated, the disciples of Jesus gave a false testimony respecting the resurrection, they acted in a manner subversive of every law of the mind; that the supposition of their giving such a testimony overthrows every ground of belief, and involves us in inextricable perplexity.'

Though the fourth part contains many pertinent observations, we shall not draw the attention of our readers to it; because, as we have already said, the success which attended the apostles belongs more to the evidence for the credibility of the Gospel in general, than to that of the Resurrection in particular.

For a conclusion, the author illustrates the harmony which subsists between the different parts of the evidence, and declares his persuasion that the future progress of Christianity will be promoted by an examination of the solid grounds on which its divinity is established.

Some words not in common use in the southern parts of the island occur in this tract, as *expiry* for expiration; *stumbled* them, for caused them to stumble; *profanity* for profaneness, &c.: but, on the whole, the language is correct; and the exhibition of the arguments, in support of the reality of the important point which is discussed, is of such a nature, that a perusal of the volume must afford comfort to the Christian, while on the mind of the ingenuous infidel it cannot fail of making an impression.

Moy.

ART. V. *A concise View of the Constitution of England.* By George Custance. Dedicated, by Permission, to William Wilberforce, Esq. M.P. for the County of York. 12mo. pp. 474. 6s. Boards. Printed at Kidderminster for the Author; and sold in London by Longman and Co. 1808.

IT would really have given us great pleasure to have been able to recommend this work, which is written on a very useful plan, to the attention of young persons pursuing their studies

studies in the ordinary course of education: but such a recommendation would be inconsistent with our duty as reviewers, not merely on account of the errors which we have detected in perusing the volume, (since some errors were naturally to be expected,) nor on account of its deficiency in clearness of language and in lucid arrangement of particulars, but because we have been shocked with a prevailing strain of sycophancy, and a fashionable acquiescence in corruption, of which we should above all things deprecate the reception among the rising generation of our countrymen.—We must protest against the assertion that 'the privilege of parliament does not extend to the case of writing and publishing seditious libels,' (p. 80.), since the proceedings in the case of Wilkes, on which alone the above doctrine is founded, were ordered to be expunged from the journals of the House of Commons as subversive of the rights of all the electors of Great Britain, by a vote of that assembly passed on the 3d of May 1783. Moreover, we cannot deem it right and useful that our sons should be instructed to believe that 'the King has the *same title to the crown*, that a private man has to his hereditary estate' (p. 117.); though indeed, in refutation of this false and dangerous position, it will not be necessary to travel out of the very chapter which contains it, in which it appears that the crown was taken from the hands of its actual possessor, and confided to those of the Prince of Orange, who had no pretence of hereditary right; that it was afterward settled by Act of Parliament in a particular line, to the exclusion of two elder branches; that the kingdoms of England and Ireland, when forming a legislative union, agreed in the year 1800, (a period not very favourable to wild political theories,) that "the crown should *continue* settled" on the terms prescribed by a previous *Act of Parliament*; and that to maintain that parliament is "not able to make laws to bind the crown, and the descent thereof," is high treason by an unrepealed law of the realm. We did not, however, expect to see that grave absurdity repeated in an elemental book on the laws of England, that 'it is very surprising that any sensible person can infer the doctrine of "a right to choose our own governors," from the conduct of our ancestors at the revolution in 1688; since if we had possessed it before, it is clear that the English nation did at that time most solemnly renounce and abdicate it, for themselves and for all their posterity for ever.'

In speaking of the Royal Prerogative, Mr. Custance takes occasion to discuss the judicial power, and the King's right to appoint judges,—who, we may remark, are never once mentioned in the chapter "Of the Magistracy." It is here that the

the author breaks out into the most extravagant raptures on the act passed in the early part of the present reign, in consequence of the suggestion from the throne, by which it was provided that judges should retain their office, notwithstanding a demise of the crown. 'An Act was passed, (says he) by which the judges are now continued in office, notwithstanding a demise of the crown; *and* cannot be removed but by a joint address of both Houses of Parliament to the King.' Who could doubt, on reading this sentence, that both these important objects were for the first time secured by the Act in question? Yet it is bare justice to the calumniated memory of William the Third, to state that he first altered the tenure of the judges from *durante bene placito*, to *quamdiu se bene gesserint*, and made the address of both Houses of Parliament the only criterion of their good behaviour. The Act passed in the first year of the present reign merely tied up the hands of His Majesty's successors, introducing no alteration whatever while that reign should last.

We cannot take the trouble of controverting this author in all his positions by which we have been disgusted: but the following passages ought not to be entirely passed over, when we are calling the public attention to an elementary work which is destined for the moral and political instruction of youthful readers:

'Pensions and sinecures are liable to be greatly abused; yet the bestowing of them even where no service has been performed or implied, is not always improper, but may sometimes be strictly politic and wise. Every man thinks more highly of himself than he ought to think; and is more or less under the influence of vanity, pride, selfishness, and ambition. It is, indeed, very easy to raise a cry of *bribery* and *corruption* against ministers of state; but a *disinterested* patriot is a very rare character, at all times, in all countries, and under all forms of government. The scriptures represent every *unrenewed* man, as proud, and disposed to resist all authority over him. Yet most men in civilized states are so sensible of the benefits of subordination, that they are ready to defend "every ordinance of man," provided they themselves may but have a share of the *ruling* power. They will even be obedient for wrath, but none but the real christian will be so for *conscience'* sake. If then many of those who, from their talents and rank, have great influence in the country, were not by some means gratified, and thus engaged to support the government for their own advantage: it would soon be overthrown by the united efforts of ambition, and avarice, and pride, and revenge. The minister, therefore, who has the address, seasonably to confer a favour to avoid a greater evil; ought no more to be charged with *bribery*, than the physician does with *poisoning*, when he administers an opiate, to allay the irritation of his patient. Doubtless, it is the bounden duty of the government to adopt the strictest economy; but the total abolition

lition of pensions and sinecures would not be politic, if practicable. The burdens of the state, indeed, would probably be no more lightened by such a measure, than a first-rate ship distressed in a storm would be, by the officers throwing overboard their pocket money and trinkets.'

That this corrupt cant should be circulated among the middling and lower ranks is one of the most alarming symptoms in the present state of the country. Where is the reasoning to stop? Bribing in voters at an election may be preached up as a religious duty; and why may not the same or similar means be adopted for *preserving the peace* of corporations, parishes, mercantile partnerships, and even domestic associations? The dangers of Methodism, in various points of view, have been often and ably pointed out: but we are here enabled to contemplate it in a new character,—as the avowed advocate and slave of Mammon, endeavouring to throw the cloak of evangelical christianity over the foulest and meanest abuses of worldly wisdom. Inapplicable scriptural quotations, and scraps of holy writ, are foisted on us in every page of this work with a puritanical pertinacity which some readers will think is irreverent, and all will consider as ridiculous. Thus 'the *best* solution of the difficulty' (respecting the origin of government) 'is given in few words by an inspired writer, who affirms that "the powers *that be* are ordained of God.' —Again, this holy man (Mr. Custance, not St. Peter) treating of the revenue, after having averred that 'it is but reasonable that the people, who derive the benefit resulting from this *ordinance of God*, should contribute towards *the* defraying *of* the unavoidable public expenditure,' proceeds to remark that 'this should be done with chearfulness, *because* 'rulers are God's ministers attending continually *on this very thing*.'— Attending continually on the means of raising revenue from the people! A very strange reason for contentment and chearfulness on the part of the said people!

Perhaps we have dwelt too long on this publication: but we confess that, at this particular period, every treatise, however imperfect, on the constitution of England, which may by possibility bias the opinions and regulate the feelings of even the lowest classes of our countrymen, appears to us so deeply important, that we can scarcely persuade ourselves to quit the subject. That this constitution must owe its permanence to a timely reform has been long ago demonstrated by Chatham and by Fox; and the necessity of that reform has been the favourite doctrine of all honest politicians for the last thirty years, the leading principle of all the eminent members of the party now excluded from power, and the

great bond of union among all those who, from disinterested motives, have adhered to their vicissitudes of fortune. Recent detections and exposures have still more fully manifested this necessity; of which a larger and more respectable body of the people have by them been made sensible, than ever before appeared in its favour. Is it possible that, at such a moment, and contemplating the known alternative, the Whigs of England can be guilty of a dereliction of that important principle, to which their honour as individuals is thus solemnly pledged, and in which the peaceable continuance of a free constitution in England is inseparably involved ?

Den.

ART. VI. *Philosophical Transactions of the Royal Society of London,* for the Year 1808. Part II. 4to. 14s. 6d. sewed. Nicol.

NATURAL HISTORY, SURGERY, *and* CHEMISTRY.

A Letter on the Alterations that have taken place in the Structure of Rocks, on the Surface of the Basaltic Country in the Counties of Down and Antrim. Addressed to Humphrey Davy, Esq. Sec. R. S. by Wm. Richardson, *D. D.* — The Reverend writer of this letter, who is an inhabitant of the country which he describes, and who seems to have examined its peculiarities with great attention, here proposes to investigate the natural causes which have produced those singular appearances, that have so long rendered the coast of Antrim an object of curiosity to the scientific traveller. For an extent of several miles, the land is bounded by an abrupt and very lofty precipice, the front of which is composed of immense basaltic columns, of the most regular structure; occasionally interrupted by breaks, and intersected by horizontal strata of different materials. The number of horizontal strata which may be distinctly traced is ten ; and Dr. Richardson informs us that each of them preserves very nearly the same thickness through its whole extent, their upper and lower surfaces being exactly parallel to each other. He also remarks that, where any change occurs in the disposition of the strata, the alteration takes place *per saltum*, as he expresses it, and not gradually ; that the *façades* are formed by vertical sections of the upper strata, while the lower part is steep, but not perpendicular ; that the bases extend a considerable way into the sea ; and that wherever these *façades* present themselves, the materials which might be supposed to have formed the continuation of the strata are entirely carried away.

Having established these positions by an accurate examination of the features which the basaltic region uniformly exhibits,

Dr.

Dr. Richardson, waiving the discussion concerning the original formation of these rocks, proceeds to inquire by what means they obtained their present arrangement. Many circumstances render it probable that the basaltic columns extended beyond the present *façades*, and that the breaks were once occupied by a continuation of the strata which occur on each side of them. He argues that these changes could not have been produced by any cause operating in the bowels of the earth, since in this case the strata would have been broken into parts, which would have had various oblique directions, instead of that regular parallelism which they now preserve. It does not seem probable that the action of water, covering the whole surface of the globe, or the currents of rivers, or the gradual decomposition of the materials, could have produced the present appearances, where large parts are entirely carried off, while other large parts still remain exactly in their original state. It seems, indeed, almost impossible not to conclude that what we now see are parts of the original masses left behind, without any alteration, and that the intervals were once filled up with similar strata, which have been swept away by some powerful but unknown agent.—On the whole, Dr. R.'s paper, although not profound, may be considered as interesting; and if not completely satisfactory, it is at least less vague than the majority of geological speculations. Two perspective views accompany and illustrate it.

A Letter on the Differences in the Structure of Calculi, which arise from their being formed in different Parts of the Urinary Passages; and on the Effects which are produced upon them, by the internal Use of solvent Medicines, from Mr. William Brande *to Everard Home, Esq. F. R. S.——Some Observations on Mr.* Brande's *Paper on Calculi. By* Everard Home, *Esq. F. R. S.* —Mr. Brande, having had an opportunity of examining the large collection of calculi contained in the Hunterian museum, has formed some conclusions which are rather different from those that are generally adopted on this subject, and are such as must in some measure affect our treatment of patients labouring under calculous complaints. He arranges them both according to the part of the body in which they are formed, and according to their chemical constitution. Calculi produced in the kidneys are generally composed of nearly pure uric acid, although sometimes mixed with the phosphoric salts; while the calculi of the urinary bladder, which are by far the most frequent, consist of uric acid, of the phosphates, or of oxalate of lime: but it frequently happens that the nucleus of the calculus is of a different nature from the incrustation which has formed around it. Those of

pure uric acid were found to be of rare occurrence; those in which the uric acid and the phosphates are united were the most common; and those of oxalate of lime were the least frequent. The number which Mr. Brande examined was 150.

With respect to the remedies which may be employed for dissolving these concretions, the researches of Mr. Brande certainly lead us to entertain great doubts of their efficacy. It unfortunately happens that those substances which prevail in the constitution of calculi, viz. the uric acid and the phosphates, require precisely opposite modes of treatment, the first being soluble by alkalies, and the latter by acids. It must also be remembered that, independently of the actual solution of the calculi, their formation is promoted or retarded by the exhibition of these substances; a long course of alkaline medicines would favour the deposition of the phosphates, while a long course of acids might increase the production of the uric acid.

Mr. Home seems to acquiese fully in Mr. Brande's reasoning, and supports his conclusions by some striking facts; in which, after death, the bladder was found full of calculous concretions, in some subjects that had been brought forwards as instances of the power of particular solvents.

On the Changes produced in atmospheric Air and Oxygen Gas by Respiration. *By* W. Allen, *Esq. F. R. S. and* W. H. Pepys, *Esq F.R.S*—This valuable paper is comprized almost entirely of a series of experiments, made with the view of ascertaining the change produced in atmospheric air by passing through the lungs. The apparatus employed consisted of a large gasometer connected with two others of a smaller size. The large gasometer, which was capable of containing 4200 cubic inches, held the gas which was to be made the subject of experiments; the air was inhaled into the lungs from it; and it was expired into the smaller gasometers, care being taken that all communication between the two was cut off. For the precautions which were adopted to ensure the accuracy of the process, and for the results of the individual experiments, we must refer to the paper: but we must observe that they appear to have been conducted with unusual skill and assiduity; and we can state some of the most important conclusions that may be deduced from them.

The quantity of carbonic acid discharged is exactly equal to the oxygen received into the lungs; atmospheric air that has once passed through the lungs returns charged with 8 or 8½ per cent. of carbonic acid gas; and when the air is respired as frequently as may be possible, the carbonic acid gas is never increased beyond 10 per cent. The average quantity of carbonic acid gas discharged by a middle sized man in 24 hours

hours is nearly 40,000 cubic inches, the carbon in which would be rather more than 11 ounces Troy. When the same air is respired with the utmost possible frequency, a larger quantity of oxgen is consumed than is employed in the formation of the carbonic acid gas; and a more than ordinary quantity of carbonic acid gas is formed when oxygen is respired instead of atmospheric air. It does not appear that any hydrogen is involved during the process of respiration; nor have we any reason to suppose that water is generated in the lungs, by the union of its constituent parts. It seems doubtful whether the bulk of the air be diminished by respiration, the diminution which seemed to take place in these experiments not being more than six parts in 1000; and even this small deficiency may perhaps be ascribed to some imperfection in the nature of the experiment.

Although we would not go so far as to say that we agree with the authors in every one of their conclusions, or that we conceive all their experiments to be completely decisive, yet we readily acknowlege that we have seldom perused a paper on a physiological subject which has given us more satisfaction, in which the experiments have been performed in a more unexceptionable manner, or in which the deductions from them have been made with more candor and propriety.

Description of an Apparatus for the Analysis of the Compound Inflammable Gases by slow Combustion; with Experiments on the Gas from Coal, explaining its Application. *By* William Henry, *M. D.* &c. of Manchester. — We have had occasion, more than once, to refer to the curious discovery which appears to have been originally made by Mr. Murdoch, of the luminous gas that is procured by the distillation of coal. Although its general properties had been tolerably well ascertained, yet some circumstances remained, connected with its constitution, which required farther investigation; and we were happy to observe that the subject had fallen into the hands of one who is so well qualified for the undertaking as Dr. Henry. The difficulty attending this inquiry depends principally on the compound nature of the product evolved from the coal; which, it seems, may consist, according to circumstances, of six different gases, united to each other in various proportions; carbonic acid gas, carbonic oxyd, sulphureted hydrogen, carbureted hydrogen, the olefiant gas, and pure hydrogen.—As it would not be easy to render intelligible any description of the apparatus, without a reference to the plate, we shall proceed to notice some of the conclusions which the author deduces from his experiments.

The olefiant, the sulphureted hydrogen, and the carbonic acid gases, are produced in a small quantity, and only at the

commencement of the operation: but it is observed, particularly with respect to the first of these bodies, that their relative quantities are much influenced by the temperature employed. The gas which is formed by the distillation of coal undergoes a gradual diminution of specific gravity and combustibility, from the commencement to the close of the process; and it appears that these two qualities are nearly proportional: so that, by ascertaining the specific gravity of any portion of coal-gas, we may form a sufficiently accurate judgment of its illuminating power. The carbonated hydrogen gas, which composes by far the largest part of the product of the distillation, does not seem precisely to resemble any of the inflammable gases which have been hitherto described. Whether it be a specific compound of carbon and hydrogen, or whether it consist of variable proportions of these elements, are questions which do not appear to be clearly ascertained. The Wigan cannel coal is the species which gives out the greatest proportion of inflammable gas: but it unfortunately happens that it also yields the largest quantity of sulphureted hydrogen. Dr. Henry observes that simple washing with water is not sufficient to deprive the gas of this ingredient; which can only be completely effected by agitating it with a thick cream of quick lime and water.

An Account of some Peculiarities in the anatomical Structure of the Wombat, with Observations on the female Organs of Generation. *By* Everard Home, Esq. *F. R. S.* — This animal, which was discovered in the southern parts of New Holland, has already been described by M. Geoffroy and M. Cuvier: but Mr. Home, having had an opportunity of examining it, has made some additional observations, which form the subject of this paper. The structure of its posterior extremities is singular; it has no patella; and the fibula is proportionably of great size. With respect to the female organs of generation, it possesses two uteri, each furnished with one Fallopian tube; a circumstance in which it resembles the Opossum. The ovum, while in the uterus, has no placenta, but it is surrounded by a gelatinous substance, which appears to perform the office of the former. The stomach is most like that of the beaver, and is considerably different from that of the Opossum; to which, in other respects, the Wombat appears the most allied.

On the Origin and Office of the Alburnum of Trees. In a Letter from T. A. Knight, *Esq. F. R. S. to Sir* Joseph Banks, *Bart. K. B. P. R. S.* — From the title of this paper, our readers will perceive that Mr. Knight is continuing his researches on the subject of vegetable physiology. After having

having proved, in a former memoir, that bark is not convertible into alburnum, but that alburnum is deposited from the bark, he now inquires into the uses of this latter substance, and particularly of the perpendicular tubes with which it is furnished. He conceives that their office is to serve as reservoirs for the lodgment of the sap, until it is carried off by the cellular texture, and distributed to the different parts of the plant. He supposes, also, that the sap ascends through the cellular texture, and that its motion is effected by the alternate expansion and contraction of this substance :

'If the sap be raised in the manner I have suggested, much of it will probably accumulate in the alburnum in the spring; because the powers of vegetable life are, at that period, more active than at any other season; and the leaves are not then prepared to throw off any part of it by transpiration. And the cellular substance, being then filled, may discharge a part of its contents into the alburnous tubes, which again become reservoirs, and are filled to a greater or less height, in proportion to the vigour of the tree, and the state of the soil and season : and if the tubes which are thus filled be divided, the sap will flow out of them, and the tree will be said to bleed. But as soon as the leaves are unfolded, and begin to execute their office, the sap will be drawn from its reservoirs, and the tree will cease to bleed, if wounded.'

Electro-chemical Researches on the Decomposition of the Earths; with Observations on the Metals obtained from the alkaline Earths, and on the Amalgam procured from Ammonia; by H. Davy, *Esq. Sec. R. S. M. R. I. A.* — In our former numbers, we have given an account of Mr. Davy's brilliant discovery of the composition of the alkalies by the application of the electric energy; and we have now to detail a continuation of his labours in the application of the same agent to the earths. The former arrangement was not altogether successful in the present instance; and several trials were necessary, before the effects could be rendered sufficiently distinct. Mr. Davy's perseverance, however, conquered every obstacle; and, with respect to the alkaline earths, the results of his experiments are nearly as satisfactory as in the case of the alkalies themselves. The earth on which he operated, having been slightly moistened, was mixed with a metallic oxyd, and then subjected to the action of the wires; when an amalgam adhered to the negative wire, which appeared to consist of mercury united to the metallic base of the earth that had been employed. A still more perfect method of obtaining the base of the alkaline earths was suggested by Prof. Berzelius; a globule of mercury was made to act on the earth slightly moistened, and resting on a plate of platina; in which case,

as in the former, the mercury became less fluid and amalgamatized, as it appeared, with the earth on which the experiment was performed. By distillation, a part of the mercury was driven off, while the metal was left behind: but it did not seem possible entirely to separate it from the mercury, so as to be able to examine it in a state of perfect purity.

Alumine and silex were not decomposible by the same process which had been applied to the alkaline earths: but, by a different arrangement, the object was at last partially obtained. They were fused with potash, and then negatively electrified; and in this state they were touched by a positive wire, when a kind of explosive effect was produced, and the wire became coated with brilliant metallic scales, which seemed to be the metallic basis of the earth.—Respecting the earths in general, although the proofs of their composition cannot be deemed quite so clearly made out as that of the alkalies, yet we see no reasonable cause for doubting the justice of Mr. Davy's conclusions regarding them.

so far Bos.

Astronomy *and* Hydraulics.

Observations of a Comet, made with a View to investigate its Magnitude and the Nature of its Illumination. To which is added, an Account of a new Irregularity lately perceived in the apparent Figure of the Planet Saturn. By William Herschel, *LL.D. F.R.S.*—This paper contains no observations relative to the *motion* of the comet, but is entirely devoted to the subjects specified in the title. Dr. Herschel pursues his antient mode of *journalizing*, and on this occasion we are not disposed to complain of it; since several persons, who viewed the remarkable comet of 1807, will thus have an opportunity of comparing their observations with those of Dr. H., though no very important conclusions can be expected to follow from such comparison.

A principal object with Dr. H., and an object not easily fulfilled, was to ascertain the magnitude of the nucleus of the comet; the nucleus being, according to his definition, 'that part of the head which appears to be a condensed or solid body, and in which none of the very bright coma is included.' By two methods, the magnitude was ascertained; the first consisting in a comparison of the disk with small sealing-wax globules, placed on a post 2422 inches from the object mirror of Dr. H.'s ten-feet-reflector; a mode which is liable to uncertainty and objection, because the observed magnitude of the disk was compared with the recollected magnitude of the globules. In the second method, a direct comparison was made of the disk of the comet with the disk of one of Jupiter's Satellites; and the telescopes employed for the

purpose of making this comparison had, generally, a power a little above 200. From a due consideration of the observations, the circumstances attending them, and some slight necessary computation, Dr. H. concludes that the real diameter is 538 miles. With regard to the illumination, he says:

'Having thus investigated the magnitude of our comet, we may in the next place also apply calculation to its illumination. The observations relating to the light of the comet were made, from the 4th of October to the 19th. In all which time the comet uniformly preserved the appearance of a planetary disk fully enlightened by the sun: it was every where equally bright, round, and well defined on its borders. Now as that part of the disk which was then visible to us, could not possibly have a full illumination from the sun, I have calculated the phases of the comet for the 4th and for the 19th, the result of which is, that on the 4th the illumination was 119° 45′ 9″, and that on the 19th it had gradually increased to 124° 22′ 40″. Both phases appear to me sufficiently defalcated, to prove that the comet did not shine by light reflected from the sun only: for had this been the case, the deficiency I think would have been perceived, notwithstanding the smallness of the object. Those who are acquainted with my experiments on small silver globules *, will easily admit, that the same telescope, which could shew the spherical form of balls, which subtended only a few tenths of a second in diameter, would surely not have represented a cometary disk as circular, if it had been as deficient as are the figures which give the calculated appearances.

'If these remarks are well founded, we are authorised to conclude, that the body of the comet on its surface is self-luminous, from whatever cause this quality may be derived. The vivacity of the light of the comet also, had a much greater resemblance to the radiance of the stars, than to the mild reflection of the sun's beams from the moon, which is an additional support of our former inference.

'The changes in the brightness of the small stars, when they are successively immerged in the tail or coma of the comet, or cleared from them, prove evidently, that they are sufficiently dense to obstruct the free passage of star light. Indeed if the tail or coma were composed of particles that reflect the light of the sun, to make them visible we ought rather to expect, that the number of solid reflecting particles, required for this purpose, would entirely prevent our seeing any stars through them. But the brightness of the head, coma, and tail alone, will sufficiently account for the observed changes, if we admit that they shine not by reflection, but by their own radiance; for a faint object projected on a bright ground, or seen through it, will certainly appear somewhat fainter, although its rays should meet with no obstruction in coming to the eye. Now, as in this case, we are sure of the bright interposition of the parts of the comet, but have no knowledge of floating particles, we ought certainly, not to

'* See Phil. Trans. for 1805, page 38, the 5th experiment.'

 ascribe

ascribe an effect to an hypothetical cause, when the existence of one, quite sufficient to explain the phenomena, is evident.

'If we admit that the observed full illumination of the disk of the comet cannot be accounted for from reflection, we may draw the same conclusion, with respect to the brightness of the head, coma, and tail, from the following consideration. The observation of the 2d of February mentions that not only the head and coma were still very bright, but that also the faint remains of the tail were still visible; but the distance of the comet from the earth, at the time of observation, was nearly 240 millions of miles *, which proves, I think, that no light reflected from floating particles could possibly have reached the eye, without supposing the number, extent, and density of these particles, far greater than what can be admitted.

'My last observation of the comet, on the 21st of February, gives additional support to what has been said; for at the time of this observation, the comet was almost 2,9 times the mean distance of the Sun from the earth †. It was also nearly 2,7 from the sun ‡. What chance then could rays going to the comet from the sun, at such a distance, have to be seen after reflection, by an eye placed at more than 275 millions of miles § from the comet? And yet the instant the comet made its appearance in the telescope, it struck the eye as a very conspicuous object.'

The latter part of this memoir relates to a subject which has for some years occupied Dr. H.'s attention, namely the figure of the planet Saturn. The astronomical world was astonished, when it was first announced to them by the Doctor that the equatorial parts of Saturn did not *bulge* out, but were flattened; and the phænomenon is so contrary to that which might be expected to happen from the effect of rotation, and from the attraction of the planet's ring, that, without incurring the charge of obstinate and blameable incredulity, we may venture to doubt the existence of the fact stated, till it has been verified by more numerous observations. Dr. H. will no doubt multiply his examinations; and indeed he was, for the very purpose of ascertaining the phænomenon, observing Saturn when he remarked the *new phænomenon* of a difference in its two polar regions. On June 16, 1807, he perceived that the southern regions were more *curved*, or *bulged outwards*.

For this phænomenon, however, Dr. H. does not seem inclined to account on any principles of material attraction, since he calls it an *illusion*; and it is properly an illusion, if the cause which he suggests be the true cause. The rays of

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'* 239894939.'

'† The sun's mean distance being 1, that of the comet was 2,89797.'

'‡ The comet's distance from the sun was 2,683,195.'

'§ 275077889.'

light

light from the southern regions of the planet to the spectator's eye pass very closely to the edge of the ring; and they may be inflected by the edge, or refracted by its surrounding atmosphere. The last is imagined by Dr. H. to be the case; and he thinks that his supposition is somewhat confirmed by one of his former observations, (see Phil. Trans. 1790, p. 7.) when the smallest satellites of Saturn were seen (as it were) bisected, by the narrow luminous line under which the ring appeared when the earth was nearly in the plane of it.

Hydraulic Investigations, subservient to an intended Croonian Lecture on the Motion of the Blood. By Thomas Young, *M.D. For. Sec. R. S.* — These discussions relate to the mechanical principles of the circulation of the blood; and accordingly the author has found it necessary to investigate the motion of fluids in pipes as affected by friction, the laws of the propagation of an impulse through the fluid contained in an elastic tube, the magnitude of pulsation in various parts of a conical vessel, and the effect of a contraction advancing through the length of a given canal. The mathematical part of this discussion is contained in the present paper, and the physiological is reserved for a future occasion.

In the *Encyclopedia Britannica*, we find an extensive and interesting article on Rivers, written (as it is acknowleged to have been) by the late Professor Robison: in which the chief aim of the writer is to explain and confirm the theory of M. Buat, as it is delivered in his *Hydraulique*; and indeed from this article all our knowlege of M. du Buat's labours is derived, because we possess not his work. It would lead us very far beyond our boundaries to explain the plan and construction of M. Buat's system: but we are persuaded that we shall do a kind office by recommending to our mathematical readers a perusal of the article *Rivers*. It will be difficult to point out such another specimen of a cautious, refined, and dextrous application of the language of Mathematics to Physics.

Among the important formulæ given by M. Buat, one expresses the velocity of water flowing in a pipe. If V be the mean velocity, d the mean hydraulic depth, s the slope of the pipe, $g = 12 \times 82$ inches, n a number determined from experiment and $= 243.7$, then

$$V = \frac{307\ (\sqrt{d} - 0.1)}{\sqrt{s} - \textit{hyp. log}\ \sqrt{(s + 1.6)}} - 0.3\ (\sqrt{d} - 0.1)$$

To this formula of computation Dr. Young objects, because it is not very convenient for practice; and because, which is more material, in extreme cases, (that is, when the tube is either extremely narrow or extremely long,) it is completely

erroneous: another formula is therefore substituted, which is thus obtained: — if we denote by f the height necessary to overcome friction, by d and l the diameter and length of a pipe, and assume a and c as arbitrary quantities, then

$$f = a.\frac{l}{d}v^2 + 2c.\frac{l}{d}v.$$

Dr. Y. states that he was justified in assuming this formula, because, from certain experiments, (which, however, he does not relate,) he found that the friction could not be expressed by any single power of the velocity, but *appeared* to consist of two parts, the one varying simply as the velocity, the other as its square.

The parts of the coefficients of v^2 and v, that is, $\frac{l}{d}$, are rightly assumed, because the friction will vary as the length of the pipe and inversely as its diameter: the other parts, a and c, are numerically exhibited in this paper, and determined, we suppose, from experiment. These being ascertained, the whole height of water, composed (according to the ingenious principle of M. Buat) of two heights, one due to the friction, resistance, &c., the other necessary for producing the actual velocity with which the water flows, is equal to $f + \frac{v^2}{478}$; or, according to Dr. Young, more nearly $= f + \frac{v^2}{550}$. Hence, if we call h the height, and put for f its value, we have

$$h = \frac{v^2}{550} + a\frac{l}{d}v^2 + 2c.\frac{l}{d}v.$$

If this quadratic be solved, and if b be put for $\frac{d}{al + .00182.d}$ and e for $\frac{bcl}{d}$, we shall have

$$v = \surd(bh + e^2) - e:$$

which is the form that Dr. Y. regards as more convenient for practice than that of M. Buat, and, with the determination of his arbitrary quantities, more nearly agreeing with the results of experiments.

In order to compare his formula with that of Buat, Dr. Young gives at page 168, &c. a tabular view of both; and he then adds:

'It appears from this comparison, that in the forty experiments extracted from the collection, which served as a basis for Dubuat's calculations, the mean error of his formula is $\frac{1}{24}$ of the whole velocity, and that of mine $\frac{1}{25}$ only; but if we omit the four experiments, in which the superficial velocity only of a river was observed, and in which

which I have calculated the mean velocity by Dubuat's rules, the mean error of the remaining 36 is $\frac{1}{33}$, according to my mode of calculation, and $\frac{1}{27}$ according to M. Dubuat's; so that on the whole, the accuracy of the two formulæ may be considered as precisely equal with respect to these experiments. In the six experiments which Dubuat has wholly rejected, the mean error of his formula is about $\frac{1}{24}$, and that of mine $\frac{1}{45}$. In fifteen of Gerstner's experiments, the mean error of Dubuat's rule is one third, that of mine one fourth; and in the three experiments which I made with very fine tubes, the error of my own rules is one fifteenth of the whole, while in such cases Dubuat's formulæ completely fail. I have determined the mean error by adding together the logarithmic ratios of all the results, and dividing the sum by the number of experiments. It would be useless to seek for a much greater degree of accuracy, unless it were probable that the errors of the experiments themselves were less than those of the calculations; but if a sufficient number of extremely accurate and frequently repeated experiments could be obtained, it would be very possible to adapt my formula still more correctly to their results.'

Dr. Young promises to pursue this subject in a future paper; and we hope that he will then be more explicit, will enter more into detail, and will shew with greater argument why the friction (which term, we suppose, he intends to denote the sum of the various resistances that arise from the contact of the fluid with the sides of the vessel, from the viscidity of the fluid, &c.) may properly be expressed by such a form as

$$a v^2 + b v.$$

It appears to us that several other formulæ besides the above may give mere approximate results, and such as nearly agree with experiments. Why should not a formula such as $a v^{1.9} + b v^{1.8} + c v^{1.7} +$ &c. express the height due to the friction? We see much ground for caution and doubt in these investigations; and although we by no means intend to say that the form $a v^2 + b v$ is untrue, yet we could wish that it had been more particularly verified.

We have on former occasions expressed a desire, which we now repeat, that Dr. Y. would more considerately attend to the convenience of his readers. He is not sufficiently plain and explicit. He alludes to books, instead of specifically referring to them. Half the mathematicians and philosophers of England are unacquainted with the researches of Buat, and the explanatory commentary of Robison. Dr. Young has, indeed, in his work on Natural Philosophy, published an admirable and most useful catalogue of authors and matters: but is he thus absolved from all future references?

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When Dr. Y. says that he has only followed M. Buat in his mode of considering a part of the height of a given reservoir, as due to the friction of the pipe, he appears to make rather too slight an acknowlegment; and we wish that he had particularly exposed, in the two instances to which he alludes, M. Buat's mistakes, instead of saying that they were so obvious that to overthrow them scarcely required an argument. These arguments, which lie so near to the surface, and have so little to effect when made to emerge, are with us generally the most difficult to find out.

The remaining parts of the paper, which we have not now an opportunity of minutely examining, are on the resistance due to flexure in pipes, the propagation of an impulse through an elastic tube, the magnitude of a diverging pulsation at different points, and the effect of a contraction advancing through a canal.

Eclipses of the Satellites of Jupiter, observed by John Goldingham, *Esq. F. R. S. and under his Superintendance, at Madras in the East Indies.*—The eclipses of Jupiter's Satellites are put down in the Nautical Almanack, to enable observers to determine the longitude of places: but, from the errors of the tables, the difference of longitude between Greenwich and the place of observation cannot be obtained with any great degree of accuracy; and on this account Dr. Maskelyne, in the explanation of the use of the Ephemeris, recommends, if it can be effected, the comparison of a correspondent observation made under a well known meridian, with an observation made in a meridian of which the longitude is required. This plan is more certain than the method by the calculations in the Ephemeris; of which Mr. Goldingham is aware; and he adds, also, that the correspondent observations, when great accuracy is attempted, should be made under like circumstances, and with telescopes of the same powers. This latter *condition* is not easily attained; and the author remarks:

'It may not be an easy matter to have telescopes at both places of precisely the same powers for these observations: at Madras we had two telescopes in use, constructed at the same time, in appearance precisely alike, and intended by Dollond to have been so in all respects; yet on repeated trials, one was found to have a decided advantage of several seconds over the other, shewing the emersions sooner, and the immersions later by that quantity. In order to do away the error arising from a difference in the powers of telescopes, *immersions* and *emersions* should be observed at both places; the difference of longitude will be as much greater than it ought to be by one series as less by the other, but the medium will be the correct difference of longitude of the places: it is possible also there may be some differ-

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ence in the eyes of observers, any error which may arise from this source will also be done away by this method.

'Hence it would appear, that in order to obtain a correct difference of longitude of two places from correspondent eclipses of the satellites of Jupiter, the circumstances at both places should be similar and favourable; and that the telescopes should have equal powers, or that both immersions and emersions should be observed, which indeed ought always to be done, where time will admit: also, that the circumstances being favourable at one place and not so at the other, a result very different from the truth will be obtained.'

This paper contains seven pages of observations; the last column expressing the longitude of Madras, as computed from observations and the tables. By numerous observations of various kinds, Mr. G. estimates the longitude of Madras at $5^h\ 21^m\ 14^s$ or $80^\circ\ 18'\ 38''$ East of Greenwich.

Part I. of the Philosophical Transactions for 1809 has just appeared.

from p. 276. R.W.

ART. VII. *An Historical Survey of the Foreign Affairs of Great Britain*, with a View to explain the Causes of the Disasters of the late and present Wars. By Gould Francis Leckie, Esq. 8vo. pp. 291. 6s. 6d. sewed. Bell. 1808.

WE learn from this work that its author visited Greece so far back as 1790, and has passed in various quarters of the Mediterranean almost the whole of the long period which has since intervened. In Sicily, particularly, he resided seven years; and he ranks, it seems, among the landholders of that island. His book comprizes nearly three hundred closely printed pages, and consists of a variety of Tracts written at different times, from January 1806 to October 1808: which are partly letters addressed to persons at that time in public stations in the Mediterranean, (the Generals Fox, Sir John Stuart, and Sir John Moore, and Mr. Drummond,) and partly, disquisitions committed to writing at various dates, but not circulated till the publication of this volume. The object of these extensive labours is to point out the errors of our Government in the conduct of the late as well as the present war, and to suggest different views on the part of the author. His general purport is to advise that we should by no means tie ourselves to an implicit support of the government of an allied country, when that government is ill calculated to draw forth the energy of the people, but should have no scruple in exerting our influence to revolutionize, whenever revolution can be shewn to be salutary and acceptable to the bulk of a nation. The French have abolished the old governments

ments in the countries which they have conquered, and have substituted others, of the superior efficiency of which all Europe is witness. A similar course in regard to our allies is recommended by Mr. Leckie; with the important distinction, however, that we should not, like the French, usurp any thing for ourselves, but give to the regenerated country the whole benefit of the reform; being guided in our interference by no other consideration than that of augmenting the power and happiness of our ally; and doing in self defence, and from virtuous motives, that which we see the French daily practise from the thirst of incessant aggrandizement. His views, however, will be best explained in his own words:

'Let us reflect that the French revolutionists extended their power by affecting to assimilate the government of other countries to their own; and if this deceitful plan succeeded, Britain, by propagating among mankind the principles of freedom and of justice, may hope to counteract them with success. Were the spirit of our institutions imitated in other parts of Europe, wherever this happened, we should find friends and allies; and our system ought to be opposed to the military and revolutionary code: it is the only one capable of being contrasted advantageously with them, as all the simple monarchies on the continent have crumbled before them.'—

'The following tracts have been written as the successive transactions suggested the matter, and result from the writer's having been an attentive spectator of them during the whole war, from its commencement after the death of Louis XVI. to the present time. Events have crouded so fast on each other, that their cause and spirit cannot at first sight be easily discovered; but this is evident to all, that the French have been successful in almost all their attempts, that they have totally changed the face of Europe, while the British government seems never to have been guided in its conduct by any general abstract principle, nor by any great and philosophic view of human events; but rather to have suffered its measures to be determined by some bias it received at the moment.

'Had the ministers of the crown attentively read the history of those countries where their arms have been engaged, or to which their views have been turned, they could never have sent expeditions abroad, called forth by the reliance upon false hypotheses, and in no way adapted either to the circumstances of the country which was the object of them, nor tending to any one advantage, in the event of success.

'Thus the conduct of our armies being cramped by the considerations quite foreign to the real state of affairs, can produce no advantage, while the principle on which we carry on the war in general defeats its own object; and the diplomatic agents we employ abroad are either so confined by the orders transmitted to them, the nature of their powers, or, as more frequently happens, by their own want of abilities, that wherever we find the British government concerned, we see the want of energy and decision, and inconsistency and weakness

ness in all our measures. This opinion is now so deeply rooted in the minds of foreigners, that no party have any confidence in us, and our national credit is daily suffering depreciation. While the French were consolidating a great empire in Europe, we have been afraid to pursue the war with vigour, lest our success should excite the jealousy of our allies; and this sentiment, the offspring of timidity, has lowered us in the esteem of other nations, and become the subject of severe sarcasm, or contemptuous ridicule.

'The tracts contained in this volume may serve to elucidate the foregoing assertions, and at the same time satisfy us, that we have not only the means of commanding the respect, but also of gaining the confidence of other nations; that the present war, were it conducted with a different spirit and more enlarged views, would produce not only the security which we declare to be its object, but also lay the foundation of a grandeur and duration far exceeding that of any empire which ever yet existed. To the attainment of that end the present system, or that followed during the administration of the immortal Pitt, cannot be subservient. We must be led to it by principles resulting from the evidence of facts, and confirmed by the repeated testimony of the most authentic historical records.'

Mr. Leckie begins his first tract with telling his readers that 'history in its origin consisted of nothing more than the traditionary songs of bards who celebrated the warlike actions of their heroes or tribes; as mankind improved in civilization, it became a chronicle of events and a repository of laws and institutions.' From this repository, he advises statesmen (and the advice, we must confess, is not a little wanted in our days,) to draw, by a comprehensive and diligent examination, rules for their guidance in a course of steady policy; in lieu of those wavering schemes into which they permit themselves to be hurried by the incidents of the moment. The subsequent passages express his opinion of the inadequacy of our political exertions, as well as his conviction that this inadequacy has in no degree arisen from national weakness:

'If we look back to the national character at the close of Lord Chatham's war, we shall see that the English nation are now less sanguine in their hopes than at that period, and more disposed to reflect on the injuries they may receive from other nations, than on the means they possess of being terrible to their enemies, and of improving the advantages which they possess above every other nation. If we consider the insulated position of Great Britain between the old and new world, the discipline of her armies, her riches, her public faith, the security of individuals, her empire of the seas, her commerce and colonies, we are surprized to find that all her wealth and power in thirteen years have not gained greater advantages, and that her system of war is a system of mere defence; that to the blockade of harbours almost all her operations have been confined—that to watch and prevent the enterprises of the enemy, is the utmost effort she can make; following with servile steps the route of the conqueror, without

out adopting one great and general plan for the advancement of her glory and power.'—

'The British isles contain, according to the most probable calculations, about fifteen millions of souls; but the people are singularly ingenious and docile, persevering and brave. The nature of the government, by the support it gives to good faith in all transactions, has afforded to the freedom of commerce, the valuable aid of public credit. In this empire every thing is activity and enterprise, and the moral sentiments of the people give it a splendid superiority over the profligate nations of the continent. These are, probably, the intellectual springs from which the British energy originates; and with such materials in their hands, there is no enterprise too great for a wise administration to undertake.'

Before he proceeds to any practical application of his doctrine of political interference, Mr. Leckie gives a chapter on drawing the line between too great and too little innovation. His general reasoning on this important topic is not so clear and condensed as we should have wished: but his remarks on two events which occurred during his residence in the Mediterranean are deserving of attention. When we took possession of Corsica, he thinks, we went too far by endeavouring to introduce the British constitution into a country which was not prepared for it, either by progress in civilization or by habits of industry. In Malta, on the other hand, he conceives, we have not proceeded far enough, since we have attempted no change whatever,—not even a reform in the avowed mal-administration of justice.

The first three chapters, or tracts, as they are called, are written in the author's name, and bear the dates of January and February 1806. The fourth tract is of a date considerably subsequent, being in September 1806; and it differs in form also from its predecessors, being put into the whimsical shape of a letter from the dead to the living. The supposed writer is Phalaris, the antient tyrant of Agrigentum, who writes from the Elysian fields to General Fox in Sicily. The subject of this letter from a *ci-devant* Sicilian prince is, as may naturally be expected, more of a local than a general nature; and accordingly it forms the beginning of that part of Mr. Leckie's book, which from his opportunities of personal observation is of greatest interest to the public, namely the description of the government and condition of Sicily. With this subject the British public are very little if at all acquainted; and as it is of very considerable importance in a political light, we have selected from the large mass of materials here presented to us the passages which we consider as best calculated to give an idea of the author's manner, as well

as to convey interesting information. We quote first from the letter in the name of Phalaris :

'After the conquest of Sicily by Roger the Norman, the history of the country has been marked by a continual series of the changes of its masters, and exhibits a register of all the evils resulting from an erroneous system of revenue, and from the feudal institutions; but these were at that time in their vigour, and the evils which were suffered from them were common to the rest of Europe. But in the northern parts the laws have been revised, justice has been better administered, and the knowledge of letters has by degrees mitigated the mischiefs arising from ignorance and barbarism. The nations beyond the Rhine and the Danube, as well as those of your native isle, are now the most civilized and enlightened of mankind; the northern parts of Italy have felt the rays of science by the dispersion of those clouds of superstition, which so long darkened the atmosphere of Europe. None of these advantages have yet been felt by my countrymen; but every aggravation of misery, poverty, corruption, and ignorance, has been there accumulated! But the period of the total dissolution of the whole system, civil, political, and military is at length arrived; the laws are either silent or contradictory,—the clergy are ignorant and depraved,—the tribunals of justice venal and insolent,—the revenues of the country are embezzled by its ministers.'—'It is therefore proper that you should make yourself perfectly acquainted with the manner of raising the revenues of the country; how those revenues are applied, or how they have been alienated from the crown, and mortgaged to individuals;—that you should be made acquainted with the unequal distribution of the public burdens; the cruel and oppressive taxes on corn and bread, and the monopoly of those provisions;—that your troops are now paying taxes to the state of 60 per cent. on the bread which they eat; and that the government, besides what it receives from the prodigality of your ministry, raises a revenue of nearly 100,000l. sterling on your army.

'It is not only the prohibition of commerce by absurd regulations which contrabands might evade, but the corrupt dispensation of justice, which takes away all security from transactions between man and man; but the inefficacy of the laws, the impunity of crimes, the shackles of landed property, the forgery of papers, all these openly defended or secretly protected by the ministers of the laws, contribute to heap misery upon misery, and to deprive the island of the hope, nay even the right, to a wise and just government.'

In tract v., Mr. Leckie pursues the same subject under a more serious form, since he there comes forwards in person as the correspondent of General Sir John Stuart. The letter is written with great ardour, and contains the following address to the General's feelings :

'I appeal to your own knowledge of the national character of these kingdoms, its court, its nobles, and its people; if their downfall was not as much to be attributed to their own internal corruption as to the foreign force by which they were overthrown. When a government

government ceases to support itself on the principles of public good and public justice; when in the breast of the nobles is extinguished every sentiment of patriotic ardor; when the sense of honour, and the love of military fame, are only empty sounds; when the general corruption of the mind has totally unhinged the ties of civil society; when those who dispense the laws in the name of the sovereign, interpret them according to their own caprice and interest;—in short when the government has no confidence in the people, nor the people in the government, how long can we hope that the superstructure will be supported on so mouldering a foundation?—

'Should Prince Charles again penetrate into Lombardy, the inhabitants will wait the event, either with sullen indifference, or passive despair; because they know that this country will be divided amongst the conquerors on the one side; or that they must relapse into their present oppressed state. It is for the interest of England to create as many powerful rivals to France as she can; Italy, consolidated into one great and independent state, would become our natural ally: but we must not liberate Italy from the French, to introduce into her bosom strangers, who as a reward for their services will insist on her dismemberment, and thus renew the circle of the same revolving misfortunes.

'There exists in Upper Italy a society of men, consisting of the principal nobility, whose political views are directed to this grand object. This society has existed for several years, and many who adopted the dress and language of republicans, secretly held the following doctrine:—"That Italy ought to be under one head;—and that she should adopt, as far as circumstances would permit, a limited constitution of monarchy, and enter into a firm alliance and commercial intercourse with England." Could you keep your ground on the continent, and hold out this hope to the Italian people, all ranks of men united by every tie of interest would support you, as the representative of a nation who prides herself on the fulfilment of her engagements.'

In regard to the justice of such interferences with the government of our allies as Mr. Leckie recommends, considerable difference of opinion will exist: but of the advantage that might have accrued to Europe from radical amendments of constitution, in the case of the allies of Great Britain, no doubt whatever can be justifiably entertained. When we examine the history of the Continent for the last seventeen years, when we consider the gallantry of the nations who have been led out to combat against the French, and contrast that gallantry with the pitiful weakness of their Cabinets and Generals, we are forced to acknowlege that, had the people possessed a greater influence in their respective governments, the chances of success would have been very different. If we analyze the history of the five eventful campaigns which Austria maintained against France, from 1792 to 1797, we discover among their various commanders no names of eminence, except those of Clairfait

and

and Prince Charles. If we look to the more recent Coalition of 1805, the first character who meets us is Mack; who, with some capacity for the details of office, had always failed when he attempted active operations. This man, whose imbecility ought to have been perfectly known in the cabinet of his sovereign, was permitted to intrigue for the command of the finest army of Austria, obtained that command, and lost to his country 80,000 men at a blow!

After Bonaparte had dissolved the third Coalition, and in the course of the next season had overthrown the Prussian army, we fixed our hopes on Russia. We persuaded ourselves that "the magnanimous Alexander" would remain faithful to his pledge, and constitute himself the permanent champion of the liberties of Europe: but the loss of a single battle, and the intrigues of a few days, proved sufficient to effect a complete change in the politics of a prince, whom in the ardour of our predilection we had believed to be the greatest of heroes. This "hero" has since that time not only been the stedfast ally of Bonaparte, but he has been induced, by the hope of sharing in the spoil, to go the most extraordinary lengths in his favour. He was the first to render himself the abettor of the unparalleled usurpation in Spain; and he is, at the present hour, a co-operator with Napoleon in the oppression of Austria:—a memorable lesson, this, of the justice and consistency of despotic governments; and a proof, could any proof be wanting, that no country can be wisely or virtuously governed, if the voice of the subject is not heard in the councils of the ruler!

To return to Sicily.—After having premised that other authors had fully described that fertile island as far as its climate, produce, and antiquities are concerned, Mr. Leckie expresses an intention of confining himself to very different topics. He then proceeds to give us the following information in regard to the several classes of society in the island, and also in respect to the Tribunal of Patrimony, a court which seems to absorb all kinds of jurisdiction within itself:

'*Orders of Society.*—Those princes, dukes, marquisses, and barons, who hold estates which have a town, or sufficient population, are called parliamentary barons, and have a right to sit in the assembly of the nobles: all others are called rustic fiefs, and give no right of this kind to their landlords, though they be decorated with a title.

'The next order of men are the clergy, who form a distinct assembly or house in the parliament, and consist of archbishops, bishops, archimandrites, mitred abbots, &c. The principal of these are younger brothers of the noble families, so that, in fact, the ecclesiastical house of parliament is tied to the lords.

'The next order of men consists of a second rank of nobles, who hold fiefs without burghs or towns, and who, though they have the same splendid titles, have no seat in the parliament; many of these inhabit the principal cities in the kingdom.

'The next order are the burghers of the different towns; these apply to agriculture, to the church, and to the medical and legal professions; then come the artizans and peasants. These are the peasants of the demesne, and those who are the vassals of the parliamentary lords.'—

'*The Tribunal of Patrimony* —The Tribunal of Patrimony consists of six members, viz the President, the Conservadore Generale, who is the King's Advocate, and four judges.

'As this board superintends the King's territorial revenues, so it commands the municipalities of the royal and baronial towns; and as the property of every individual is implicated either in the one or the other, so it has become a civil court, under the pretence of an authority in what regards the royal interests. In the same manner it has an authority over all ecclesiastical lands, and the copyholds granted thereon by the crown; thus no act whatever with regard to landed property can be done without its cognizance. In the same manner as all duties on exports and imports (which answer to tunnage and poundage), and which are enforced with all possible rigor: and the exports and imports themselves interest the royal revenues, so this board has assumed a dictatorial right to command,—not by fixed rules or general laws, but by issuing an order or permission on every individual occasion. None of the produce of the country, that is, corn, oil, and some others, as cattle, &c. can be exported without its permission, though the exporter offers to pay the duties'—'With regard to corn, cattle, and oil, the greatest difficulty occurs in the exportation: and a particular order is requisite from Palermo, to obtain a permission for the same; to procure this the trader must bribe *through thick and thin*. Sometimes the right of exportation is allowed for a short time, and then suddenly stopped; and thus causes the ruin of those who had provided a quantity to ship off.'—

'A certain farmer of the town of Granmichele, in the Val di Noto, had in a granary in the territory of Mineo, about fifty quarters of wheat, which then bore a high price, as it was a year of scarcity:—the giurati or corporation, without asking any questions, broke open the same, and took the wheat to their town. The farmer's complaint to the tribunal was answered by a full approbation of the conduct of the giurati, but with an order that he should be paid by them, allowing a credit of some months; during this interval the office of these (who are chosen annually) expired; their successors refused to pay, and the farmer having prosecuted the corporation, before the same tribunal which had given the above order, was cast; so that he was first plundered, and the public robbery thus sanctioned by a decision of the court, made contrary to their own orders. This person is still alive, and is baronial governor of Granmichele for the Prince of Butera!

'The privilege of supplying the city of Palermo with oil and cattle is granted to contractors; these exercise every kind of tyranny; as the

tribunal

tribunal supports them in every measure which they can devise to oblige the holder to sell to a disadvantage, and these gentlemen are in return handsomely complimented by the contractors. Until these last have bought the oil they want at the price which suits them, no exportation is allowed; and even then the tribunal makes so many difficulties in order to get bribes to permit the exportation, that the whole disappears in contraband.

'It will be natural to ask who are the men who compose this board? They are lawyers, whose whole lives having been spent in scenes of the most iniquitous litigation; possess no kind of information on commerce, when they are promoted to this rank; so that all commercial regulations, which with us are fixed by act of parliament, are here left to their absolute will and caprice, to ignorance and venality.

'As this tribunal has a controul over all the corporations in the kingdom, it has multiplied its regulations and orders so much, with respect to the privileges of each town, that though these are clear and explicit, and though the law prescribes the extent of their powers, the tribunal has by degrees caused every thing to be referred to itself—this has been done in order to multiply fees and writings.'

The tendency of these enormous abuses is equally injurious to the prince and the people; and it would have been surprizing if the sovereign had made no efforts to correct a system which detracted so materially from the efficiency of his kingdom. About twenty five years ago, an enlightened nobleman, the Marquis Caraccioli, was appointed viceroy of Sicily; and one of his first measures was to employ a Neapolitan jurisconsult, of the name of Simonetti, to draw up for the public an account of the revenue-system of Sicily. He performed the task; and the introduction to his book is strongly indicative of the indignation felt by an upright mind at the disgusting scene which he was about to lay open. His efforts, however, were fruitless; and the influence of the Sicilian aristocracy proved to be stronger at the Court of Naples than the evidence of reason or the dictates of liberality. Caraccioli was superseded in the government, and Simonetti found it necessary to relinquish the prosecution of his labours.

It is apparent, from the succeeding passages, that the Sicilian barons form an aristocracy all-powerful for the oppression of the people, and almost wholly independent of the crown:

'According to the original constitution of Sicily, the three houses of parliament have the faculty of granting supplies to the crown; but the majority of two houses is sufficient; by which means the house of commons, or demesnial assembly, becomes totally nugatory, and the lords and ecclesiastics, after generously granting the supplies, throw the whole burthen of them on the commons. Whatever re-

monstrances are made, the matter is left to the decision of those who have done the evil, and the mischief is thus perpetuated.'—

'No land tax whatever is imposed on the great landholders; and those fiefs which have no town or village in them are also exempt. The royal town, in whose territory these are situated, assesses them in the following manner:—A calculation is made of what land is cultivated and grazed; of course what number of people are variously employed on the estate. From this another estimate is made of the quantity of bread consumed annually in it, this is called *consumo*, and the renter pays the amount according to this assessment. Besides these, there is a tax called *il pelo*, which is levied on all cattle bought and sold. There is also a duty on the cheese which is manufactured,—and these duties fall on the husbandman, as he is forced to indemnify the renter for the money advanced on the consumption of flour. He also pays it on his cheese, and also on the ox which he buys to till his ground; while the lord who receives the revenue is *exempted*'—

'Since the time when Simonetti wrote his book, the crown has applied to parliament for farther supplies, which were called *millioni*; the burden was distributed as usual between the corporations of the desmesne and those of the barons, excepting the quota of the barons themselves, each share of which for a barony amounts to about as much as a small landholder pays who possesses one or two hundred acres of land in the demesne. But the baron, if he is assessed at 20*l.* for example, levies an arbitrary impost on his vassals, which he takes care shall produce so much as to satisfy the demand with a profit to himself of about *five or six hundred per cent.*, so that his vassals not only pay as a body corporate their share, but also as individuals a farther heavy tax to the lord:—but what is still more incredible, these lords are now five-and-twenty years in arrear to the crown!

'*Parliament of Sicily.*—The Parliament of Sicily consists of three houses, viz.—the barons or lords, and such only as possess fiefs, including within their limits a town or burgh. A baron has *as many votes in the assembly, as he has villages or towns on his various estates.*

'The next is the ecclesiastical assembly, consisting of archbishops, bishops, the heads of monastic orders possessing lands, abbots, &c. &c.

'Next in order follows the demesnial house, or the representatives of the towns of the royal demesne, but there are no provincial representatives, nor are any of the baronial towns represented. There are *no elections for members in the towns*, nor have the inhabitants any share in chusing the deputy. The *corporation* nominates him, and he is in general their attorney in Palermo. Thus a single man is often representative for several different places at once; and as these men are lawyers dependent on the nobles, the house of representatives is never convened, but its vote is obtained as a matter of form.'

If this aristocracy possessed any of those splendid characteristics which challenge the admiration of the inferior ranks, Sicily might find in the fame of her governors some consolation for the rigour of their yoke: but they appear to be not less

less devoid of intelligence than of virtue. Mr. Leckie (page 77.) gives this account of the

'*Education and Character of the Nobility.*—As soon as the son of a nobleman is old enough to be taken out of the hands of the nurse, a priest is hired to teach him his letters, to give him the rudiments of writing, and to attend him when he is out walking. As the salary allowed to this tutor is from sixty to a hundred dollars per annum and his board, it is not likely a man of learning will undertake the drudgery of this office; it sometimes happens too that he acts as house steward, and is ever the confident of the master or mistress in their amours. If he has some humour, he becomes the butt for every one to pass their jokes upon, familiar with the heads of the family, he is also the confessor and spiritual comforter of all the servants; and as he is forced to accommodate himself to all circumstances, his manners can neither be dignified, nor his sentiments elevated. Under such a preceptor, the young nobility of Sicily learn to write and read, with some rudiments of the Latin tongue; but a principal part of their education consists of religious doctrines, and they are early initiated with all the immorality of the catholic persuasion. As the preceptor is familiar with the servants, so are his pupils, and all the falsehoods fabricated to deceive their parents, become the examples of their conduct through life. The preceptor is ever the sycophant of his pupils, and favours their idleness by some plausible excuse.

'When they are old enough to be sent to college, they are again put under the direction of priests, who teach them theology, the history of the saints, a smattering of the Roman history, but not one science which can be of use to them. When a lad is arrived at fourteen or fifteen, he comes home to his parents, where he enters into the routine of *elegant* society at Palermo. The females are kept in a convent till they are married, whence they sometimes come out without knowing their letters; and there are many women of the first rank, who can neither read nor write.'—

'A few individuals are to be admitted as an exception to the general rule; among the first, is the Prince of Ventimiglia, who has both read and travelled, and who is on a footing, in point of acquired knowledge and reflection, with any gentleman in Europe. A few more might be named, but far inferior to him.—The house of the Prince of Ventimiglia is the resort of strangers, and of the learned few who inhabit Palermo; the rest of the nobility are such as we have described. Yet these men are to wield either the arms of the executive power, to preside over the finances, to administer justice, to distribute the public burdens; and with such men must a British minister concert measures for the defence and independence of Sicily!'

We shall conclude our extracts on this degrading picture of government and society by a short account of the judges:

'*Courts of Justice*—It is necessary to say a few words on the courts of justice, civil and criminal; of the first there are two, viz. the Tribunal del Consistoro, and the Gran Corte. In each of these

a law-suit may be heard five times over, and the last decision is generally given in such undefined and equivocal terms, that it often is the cause of a fresh suit. The barefaced manner in which the judges sport with the happiness and property of the subject, must excite the indignation of every honest mind; the judge receives *private visits from both parties*, who go to inform his worship on the cause, and they are not confronted, until it is brought to a public hearing; when there is so much falsehood to sift and disembroil, and the cause, which was at first clear and simple, has become so puzzled, that it seems impossible to decide it. This occasions the necessity of putting off the hearing.

'The salaries of the judges are trifling, and the fees are multiplied by the length of the suit; so that litigation is calculated here to ruin all, and vindicate none. Many law-suits finish by a compromise between the parties, where the power and influence are nearly equal; when not so, the weakest must be cast.'

It is natural to imagine that a sovereign, who suffers the continuance of such abuses, is either ignorant or indolent in the performance of his royal functions. Accordingly, we find that the King of Sicily is much more attached to the chace than to public business; and that he permits the affairs of the nation to be managed by the Queen, who is fond of power and political intrigue. It is strongly suspected that those who possess her confidence are more partial to the French than to the English.—In a country degraded by such glaring corruptions, it is no wonder that the desire of change should be general, and that the public should value foreign nations according to the prospect of redress which their interference may afford. We therefore are not surprized to hear the following saying represented as current throughout Sicily: "If we obtain an amelioration of our condition from the British, their coming will be the period of our ills: but if they leave things as they found them, we shall be ready to join the French."

We now take leave of that part of Mr. Leckie's book which treats of Sicily. Of the remainder of the volume, the most interesting passages are those which describe the present condition of Greece, and explain the difficulties to be encountered by the French in attempting to march by land to India. The route by Egypt and the Red Sea is evidently out of the question, because a few British frigates stationed in the Babelmandel Streights might burn or sink the whole expedition. If, as some persons have imagined, the enemy should succeed in carrying an army through the immense plains of Mesopotamia, and the country west of the Euphrates as far as Bussora, and should embark there to proceed to India through the Persian Gulf, they would still be exposed to imminent danger from our naval

superiority,

superiority, where the gulf becomes narrow towards the streights of Ormus, and where a numerous fleet could hardly escape the observation of a squadron on the alert. Such are the obstacles to the invasion of India by sea. By land, it is impossible to convey an army through the south of Persia to the Indies, the immense deserts on this side of that river rendering the passage of them as impracticable now as in former ages. It was in these deserts that the armies of Semiramis and Cyrus perished, and that those of Alexander encountered such a series of hardships. The state of government in Persia, far from improving, has been calculated greatly to deteriorate the country during the long period which has elapsed since the time of that conqueror. The track to be followed by an army marching to the invasion of India is therefore the north of Persia. If we suppose the French to be conveyed by the aid of the Russians to the eastern extremity of the Euxine, their route would lie through Armenia, and afterward through the antient Media, Hircania, and Bactriana; or, according to modern designation, through Curdistan, Irak, and Khorasan: which was the course pursued by Alexander the Great, as well as by all subsequent invaders. This part of the Persian empire, however, has undergone a wonderful change since the events of antiquity. Its meadows and gardens are now reduced to marshes and forests; and the court of Persia, even if gained over by the French, has not authority sufficient with the rude inhabitants of these regions to make them co-operate in accelerating the march of an army. The time and the treasure required for such an undertaking would therefore be very great; and when we suppose the hostile force to have reached the banks of the Ganges, that army must be large which ventures to contest for victory with the numerous and well disciplined troops which the British could oppose to it. Without the aid of Russia, the attempt would be idle: but since, with her aid, the scheme is evidently not impracticable, it behoves us to take timely precautions;—among the principal which Mr. Leckie recommends, are the improvement of our India cavalry, and a close alliance with Persia. The expediency of this alliance is not lessened by the almost insurmountable difficulties attendant on the march of an European army through the countries which we have described; since a conviction of these difficulties might induce Bonaparte to forego the attempt of transporting French troops, and make him endeavour to assail India by Persian soldiers under French officers.

The policy of Bonaparte towards Turkey exhibits a specimen of duplicity, which under any other government would be accounted singular. At the very time that he sent officers to

defend the Dardanelles against the English, and declared himself the firm friend of the Porte, he drew to Paris a Greek of the name of Koraës, to prepare materials to be employed, at a fit opportunity, for exciting the Greeks to insurrection against the Turks. Koraës is the literary champion of his countrymen, and the author of songs which inculcate their claim to independence, and urge them to wrest the sceptre of dominion from their oppressors.—The subsequent quotation conveys some important information in regard to the state of modern Greece:

'The Peloponnesus, at present, contains scarcely more than two hundred thousand inhabitants: Cyprus hardly one quarter of that number: Asia Minor, once the seat of arts, of sciences, and of philosophy, wears the same marks of desolation; its beautiful and extensive vales and plains are left to wolves and foxes, while here and there a miserable Turkish or Greek village intervenes, as if it were necessary that a few of the human race should still remain to bear witness to the dreadful reverse which that country has undergone. Let the traveller visit Greece, he will find the same lamentable effects of Asiatic despotism; should he turn his steps southward, and visit the plains of Mesopotamia, he will still trace the canals which once carried the waters of the Tigris and the Euphrates to fertilize them, and render them a fit abode for man; or let him visit and shed a tear of compassion on the present unhappy Egypt;—all will evince that such an empire, situated as it is, near to active and clear-sighted Europeans, can never be of very long duration.

'It is a reflection worthy of notice, that the pride and stupidity of the Turks caused one of the greatest errors that ever was committed by a conquering people, as their bigotry has always kept them a distinct race from the nations who held the country before their conquest of it. They denied to the conquered nations the same civil rights with themselves, and refused to treat them in any way but as slaves. The Greek, the Armenian, &c. each has preserved his own language, his own religion, and customs; and as they were not put on a footing with the Turks, they have remained apart. The Christian subject could thus have neither interest nor pride in such an order of things. Hence the Turk has remained to this day a foreigner in his own land, and he has left the means most available to his enemies for his own destruction.

'Had the Turks waved the coercion of religious opinions, and amalgamated with the conquered, the whole empire would have formed one body; and as the same distributive justice, however imperfect it was, would have been the right of all, the whole people would have formed one nation, and the weakness and discord which result from the contrary system would not have existed.

'The map of the Turkish empire still exhibits the different pashalics and governments as it did during the meridian of their power. But these different vice-roys have long since bid defiance to the sultan; and all these examples prove that Mahommedan

govern-

governments generally have the same principles of destruction inherent in their constitution; the influence of the great Greek families at Constantinople increases daily; and the commercial spirit which has grown up among that people, in various parts of the empire, portends that the Greek is waiting for the first European power which will step forward and assist him in throwing off the yoke.'—

'Crete shuts in the Egean Sea on the south, and covers the approaches to Egypt. This island is about two hundred miles in length and about forty in breadth; the soil is fertile and well cultivated; and though under the yoke of Turkey, the superior activity of the people makes the state of the country less languishing than that of Sicily, though the evils which they have to contend with are perhaps more violent in their nature, the human race here surpasses almost every other part of the world in strength and beauty, and the slavery of two centuries has not yet subdued the spirit of the Cretan people. From the most probable accounts of the population, we may conclude that it cannot be more than three hundred thousand, the sixth part of which only consists of Mahommedans.

'The military power is totally in the hands of the Turks; and with very few exceptions of Turkish villages, the Mahommedans are entirely confined to Canea and Candia; the strong fortress of Suda is in their hands.

'To recapitulate the oppressive conduct of the Turks, would be to undertake a task at once disgusting and superfluous. They are in possession of the best lands in the island, which they obtained by force and by fraud. The Greeks are mostly their farmers and renters, as well as land stewards; it is the policy of the Turks to prevent the Greeks from wearing arms, but many have them in their houses.'

Several years have elapsed since Mr. Leckie began to recommend his opinions to persons in office; and their reception does not appear to have corresponded with his estimate of their importance. He now submits them to the judgment of the public; and in doing so, he draws a sketch of the means by which our statesmen usually ascend to office: a representation which seems intended to account for the frigid reception which the members of our government are in the habit of giving to such bold and comprehensive schemes as those of Mr. Leckie. The passage is curious, as exhibiting, at the close of the volume, a specimen of the application to our own country, of that spirit of animadversion which in the previous part of the book we have seen so keenly exerted towards other governments. It is as follows:

'A young man, of a powerful family, comes from the university into parliament; he had made a very fine oration in the theatre before the vice-chancellor and many of the nobility; he had received an honorary premium for his performance. Under these auspices he gets up in the House of Commons, where the elegance of his language

guage and the roundness of his periods gain him universal applause. He is considered as a young man of promising abilities, and is destined to be a future member of the cabinet. He thus serves his apprenticeship under the minister of the day, and is thereby initiated into the routine of public business. From that moment his time is not his own, a multiplicity of papers are put into his hands, and the page of history is thenceforward closed to his inspection. His future political career is traced on the model of that of his predecessor; and as his habits of thinking are formed upon example, he becomes a minister without having once thought for himself on the most important subjects.

'An inferior class sometimes rises into notice, from a long employment in the public offices; and as their education has consisted either in copying papers, or wording official letters and dispatches, according to formula placed before them, these are also men of routine.

'From these two classes have been drawn the principal men who have guided the helm of the state of late years: but while they have the means of acquiring a perfect knowledge of its interior concerns, and may often do so in a very eminent degree, they are still totally incapacitated from obtaining even the rudiments of information on the foreign relations of the government. It is very easy to see that such men, in arriving at their dignities, must necessarily have acquired all the prejudices of their predecessors, engrafted on the habits of office, which have deprived them of the time necessary to deep reflexion; they cannot, therefore, be very open to the representations of those whose lives have been spent in travel, and in actual observation, who have attentively perused the history of past times, who have compared them with the present, who have caught the habits and entered into the spirit and principle of foreign governments, and who have thus learnt to appreciate the probabilities of events; who, in the prosecution of their local enquiries, have visited the palaces of princes and the cottage of the peasant.

'When a man of this description encounters a minister of state, he tells the truth as it strikes him; he conceives that men, surrounded with all the splendor of power, and celebrated for their eloquence in the senate, must be equally candid and open to the force of reason with himself; he is still more deceived by the kindness and the urbanity of their manners, and becomes the more willing to give information to men who receive him so graciously; he however finishes by finding that what he has represented gains no credit, and the same erroneous principles of policy triumph over the most obvious reasonings.—Whoever has had the mortification to meet with this kind of disregard will not be vexed when he has once discovered the causes which have operated to render his representations of no avail: he must recollect that when he expected that those who have been warped, from their outset, by prejudice, example, and official routine, could reason like statesmen and historians, he has only attributed qualities to them which they have had no opportunity of acquiring.'

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We have now accompanied Mr. Leckie to the end of his book, and shall conclude by giving our opinion on its general merits. It is much to be regretted that his discussions have been brought before the public in their present unconnected and indigested form. His want of arrangement is so obvious, and his repetitions are so frequent, that few of his readers, perhaps, will have patience to travel through the whole volume; and they will in general be contented with those local descriptions which may interest by their novelty or amuse by their singularity. We have not discovered, moreover, in this work, any proofs of an intimate acquaintance with the doctrines of political economy; yet this knowlege is a *sine quâ non* in all profound investigations relative to government. The strength of a nation always depends more on the nature of its constitution, and its progress in science, than in the extent of its population. Political economy unfolds the causes of the increase or decay of a most important part of its strength—its wealth; and, which is still more essential, the rules by which it proves that wealth may be increased are applicable to the increase of national power and happiness in every other respect. Mr. Leckie apologizes for any errors which he may have committed in diction, from having been long accustomed to foreign idioms. Errors of this description, however, we have not often remarked: but we have been repeatedly perplexed and disgusted by the inaccuracy of the press, especially in regard to punctuation. —To conclude; the present volume contains much that is new and deserving of attention, both from the public and our government: but, if the author expects his work to be generally read and understood, let him print a second edition in a compressed form; dividing the chapters, not by the date of their composition, with which the public have very little concern, but by the order of the subject; giving in one part his local descriptions, in another his general principles of policy, and in a third his application of these principles to particular countries.

Lowe.

ART. VIII. *Nubilia in Search of a Husband*; including Sketches of modern Society, and interesting moral and literary Disquisitions. Crown 8vo. pp. 456. 9s. Boards. Ridgway. 1809.

IF one writer sends a gentleman in pursuit of a wife, another is sure to take the hint, and to exhibit a lady in search of a husband. Modern book-makers avail themselves of every opportunity of putting their pens in motion, and the success which *Cœlebs* has obtained presented a temptation not to be resisted. Accordingly, we find that on the 10th of May 1809 the

the author of the present work began his undertaking; and so intent was he on bringing it out in time while *Cœlebs* was in course of reading, that by the 3d of June following he had completed it. We should have pleasure in complimenting him with not having made "more haste than good speed," to use the vulgar proverb: but, strange as it may appear when we talk of *haste*, it must be confessed that the composition is throughout laboured; that the reader, instead of being pleasantly *carried*, is *dragged* along; and that the book disappoints because it does not answer its title. 'Nubilia in search of a husband?' No such thing. *Nubilia* is no forward miss, all whose thoughts by day and dreams by night are fixed on marriage. In fact, she seems to think as little of a husband as any woman who ever wore a petticoat. She is as cold as a cloud of snow, (*cor inter* nubilia *condit**) and is more like a philosophic member of the *blue-stocking* club than a young woman commencing the impassioned career of life. Nubilia is a thousand times more out of nature than the Lucilla Stanley of *Cœlebs*; and, instead of being in search of a husband, she is fond of funerals, and 'loves to hold some mouldering bone within her hands.' (p. 164.) At one time, she discusses moral questions with the gravity of a college-tutor, and at another she is inflated with bombast. Now she is represented as an Epictetus endeavouring to give tone and vigor to the mind, and then as 'longing for dissolution,' because she heard the sounds of an Eolian harp. She indeed marries at last; but it is after a great deal of *talking* rather than *searching*. She sees little of the world; and to the first man who is at all estimable in her view, to whom she is introduced after a little Philandering about German literature, she gives her hand. Altogether, the story is very meagre, the transition from one dissertation to another is not very natural, and, as the picture of a young woman 'in search of a husband,' it is to the last degree disappointing.

It is true that the volume presents matured reflections on morals, society, and literature, but we cannot think that they are with any propriety put into the mouth of a young female. The remarks on Education, which are the result of much observation and meditation, are with judgment assigned to Nubilia's father: but, when the parent is removed from the stage, and the author throws the weight of all his disquisitions on the shoulders of the young daughter, we protest against such an *imposition*, to use an University-phrase. To these

* We introduce this parenthesis to suggest the impropriety of the name. It should have been *Nubilis* instead of *Nubilia*.

remarks on Education, however, some attention is due, especially to such of them as respect the importance of commencing the moral education very early in life; of keeping our word with children; and of securing them from having the first impressions made on their tender minds by our servants instead of by ourselves. On the first point, we quote the following passage:

'A child who is capable of feeling pleasure or pain at any given event, is capable, to a certain degeee, of volition, and of the simplest operations of intellect. He is able to distinguish between two objects, and in distinguishing, to determine their respective worth, relatively to himself; accordingly, if one be presented to him he is pleased; if the other, he is displeased. The moment reason has advanced thus far, that moment, I say, the moral education should commence; and in nine cases out of ten, I have seen this progress of reason take place before the eighth month. Then begins our work; it is for us to determine what shall be granted and what denied, and to erect a barrier against the influence of caprice; to wrestle with the first contentions for mastery which betray themselves in every peevish tear that follows a refusal. Mothers and nurses, I know, will exclaim against the cruelty of denying the poor little dear infant; pronounce you hard-hearted, unfeeling; mind it not; let the storm rage, but proceed steadily in your path, and be assured, that every tear your infant sheds, waters a bed of roses which will bloom with captivating beauty; while every smile that succeeds the completion of capricious desire, is a hot and fecund sun which ripens into maturity the nettle and the weed.'

In the superintendance and management of their offspring, parents should make a point of having their *yea* to be indeed *yea*, and their *nay* to be unalterably *nay*. Here we approve what the author before us has written:

'Let your word be to your child as a wall of brass, impregnable to all assaults; what you have once asserted or commanded, let no intreaties, no tears, no prayers move you to retract: it is thus only that you can do justice to your offspring and yourself. If a child once succeed in making you go from your word, or alter your opinion, farewell to all future obedience from that child! He will always cherish the idea, that by imploring he can induce you to retract; this idea will make him careless as to what you say, and in time generate even a contempt for your will. But remember, if you lift your hand in wrath against that child, you violate the rights of justice and humanity; for the disobedience you would chastise, you have fostered by your own inconsistency.'

From the disquisition on Education, we pass to one in which, under the idea of removing the shackles of the married state, wives are encouraged in cherishing a friendship for others besides their husbands. This cause is advocated by

by Nubilia's father; who, in reply to a letter from a friend expostulating with him on his intimacy with Julia, (a married woman,) xclaims:

'Does the human heart undergo a metamorphosis after the ritual ceremony of the church? Is the ring a magic circle, whose properties are potent enough to confound all feeling, to hoodwink the mind, to corrupt the natural sentiments of the bosom? Is there, in the words wife and husband, some invisible spirit that pierces through our nature, and curdles the genial current of human affection? Is the wide extended love, the sweet play of the heart, the general delight we take in our species, the natural emotions of the soul, are all these to vanish before the magical incantations of the altar? Are we to turn away from the world, and the world's concerns; are we to crush the kindling warmth, to forego the most endearing intercourse of life, to tear from our hearts the sweet band of union that linked us to our kind, to choak up the living stream of rich delight that gives unfading verdure to the path of life; must we shrink back with fear and horror, and well disciplined disgust, from the mutual intercourse of the sexes, without which this world were but a barren desart, and its highest pleasures only sullen cares? Must all this be done the moment two beings consent to strengthen the intimacy of a partial connection? It is a vulgar and debasing idea, and it is degrading to the heart of man.'

Of such rant we are not enamoured, nor can we perceive the utility that is likely to spring from its publication. Nubilia, who is wiser than her parent, confesses that he assumes as a principle a greater moral purity than is usually found in mankind; and she calls the picture of married liberty, for which her father contends, a *sublime* one —When Nubilia is meditating on her entrance into the Holy State and on the character of a wife, she admits that 'in her breast there is no room for effective friendship; that it would draw her from the more important duties of her state: that Nature providentially foresaw this, and ordained that she should fix her whole soul on man and their mutual offspring.'—Though, however, the young lady, in this respect, appears to have more prudence than her father, and unites herself to a virtuous young man, the sentiments of whose mind and the qualities of whose heart were excellent, yet at times she is represented as very romantic, especially when contemplating the beauties of nature. One extract will suffice:

'At other times softer and more ethereal images arise. When I have beheld distant clouds strongly tinged with the sun's rays, and floating, as it were, in the whiteness of surrounding æther, steadily I have fixed my eyes upon them, and imagined, that resting on their fluid borders, or rolled within their fleecy folds, angels sit hymning to the Great Creator; and, with heavenly voices, joined to the dulcet melody of harps, sing their vesper chorus. I fancy that

that the aerial strains reach my ears; and for a moment I am transported among them: then! heaven opens on my eyes! I see transparent forms, whose milk white wings fold, like a cincture, round their dazzling loins; they lean on golden harps; the blazing floor, spangled with stars innumerable, beams like a furnace; pendent, from vaulted roofs, hang starry lamps, burning sweet incense, whose odours, wafted through the balmy air, fill the delighted sense with gladness. Angelic shapes glide through Doric columns inwreathed with many a spiral fold of flaming cressets, which, circling in magic dance around, reach a nameless height supporting roofs of fretted gold; these, as they move along, hold mutual discourse sweet, and look such dewy mildness from their eyes, as heavenly spirits wont when they, of old, descended to converse with man, swift messengers of God's eternal word: still, as my fancy works, methinks I'm led, to softly breathing measures from viewless harps by airy minstrels played, along the space of heaven: odorous perfumes from ten thousand fanning wings are wafted round me: trembling I stand, even at the throne of God himself, whence angels turn, with softened gaze, away, so bright the effulgent glory which irradiates from the clouds that dwell, for ever, round the Omnipotent! The lost soul is lapped in extacy and big with unutterable feelings: mysterious visions sweep before my sight; and, in an ocean plunged of pleasures, tempered to its state by the creative mind that formed them, it dies, dissolves away, and conscious only of amazing bliss. The shadows of approaching night recall its wandering thoughts, and I awake to life, to misery and the world!'

If this be a specimen of that 'elevated English prose' which we are promised in the preface, we shall only say that it is much too elevated for us.

In *Cœlebs*, little in the shape of courtship occurs; and here also the parties shew their predilection for each other by none of those little attentions which usually discriminate lovers. No frivolity marks Mr. Vaughan's character, and he becomes the object of Nubilia's preference in consequence of 'dignity of mind.'

'Mr. Vaughan (says the lady in search of a husband) had the latter, and was wholly exempt from the former.

'Towards my own sex, his manners were far removed from that exuberant devotion which is a compound of deception, meanness, and imbecility. If a lady dropped her glove, he exhibited no agonies till it was restored to her, nor did he rush, with impetuosity, to the spot that he might be the *happy* individual who was to perform that *duty*. He believed a lady to be gifted with powers adequate to the task. If he walked out with a female, he avoided carrying her parasol for her, either over her head, or under his own arm: to this labour also, he thought her equal. He always declined the distinction of attending them to a mercer's, a milliner's, or a linen draper's; and for all these offences, (great ones they undoubtedly are in the eyes of many,) I have heard him severely censured. For

For my own part, I considered them as evidences of a mind and character compounded of something more dignified than what is essential to the composition of a *lady's man*, as such animals are emphatically called. When, however, I behold the one sex offer, and the other receive, such unmeaning attentions, such vapid courtesies, I know not on which my contempt should fall most heavily. It is difficult to decide which is the most abject, the fool who pleases, or she who is pleased.'

After all, it is fair to ask whether dignity of mind be inconsistent with attention to little things? "Man (as Lord Bacon says,) is a trifle, and his life is a trifle;" and in the interchange of social duties, especially between the sexes, a number of trifles must attract our notice. Civility and politeness are made up of trifles; and we cannot perceive that a gentleman is degraded by carrying a lady's parasol, because she can carry it herself. On this principle he ought not to cut up a chicken for her at table; 'for to this labour she is equal.'

The author speaks of his having constructed his language with a greater latitude of rhetorical embellishment than is usually thought to be consistent with English prose; and we have given a sample of these his flights into airy regions: besides which we have detected occasional incorrectness, and an affectation of employing terms which are not in common use. At p. 19. he exclaims, 'How few are the authors whose works can be read through *without receiving* contamination.' According to the construction of this sentence, works receive contamination in consequence of being read; a meaning which the author does not intend to convey. He talks also of 'a *niggard* hand,'—of 'an *antepast* of heaven,'—of 'throwing custom *to* his feet'—of 'Nature's *kindly* law'—of 'the *tinet* native to their sphere'—'of *impregning* every emotion'—of '*congenerous* superstructure'—of '*a short while*,' &c.

In our judgment, this work, though far from being a flimsy and inferior production, will not afford much satisfaction to either sex. It is barren of character; and the heroine sustains an unnatural part, when, instead of being shewn the world before she makes her choice, she is presented to us as the sage moralist and the learned critic. *Quodcunque ostendis mihi sic*, &c.

Like most moderns, the author misquotes the couplet of Hudibras, which should be,

> "He that *assents* against his will
> Is of the same opinion still."

ART. IX. *American Encroachments on British Rights*; or Observations on the Importance of the British North American Colonies, and on the late Treaties with the United States; with Remarks on Mr Baring's *Examination*; and a Defence of the shipping Interest from the Charge of having attempted to impose on Parliament, and of factious Conduct in their Opposition to the American Intercourse Bill. By Nathaniel Atcheson, Esq. F. A. S. 8vo. pp. 376. 9s. Boards. Butterworth. 1808.

COPIOUS as this title-page is, it does not seem to express clearly either the object or the plan of the author. According to our view of the work, it might have been more appropriately intitled "a Dissertation on the Importance of the Shipping Interest to Great Britain, and on the Value of British North America to the Shipping Interest." In one respect, that of citing his authorities, Mr. Atcheson is distinct and methodical: but we cannot give him correspondent credit in another very essential matter, namely the arrangement of his own ideas. He has prefixed no introduction, nor has he made any division of his subject into chapters or sections. His book opens with statistical information on our North American Colonies, continued through rather more than fifty pages; after which the general question of the importance of the shipping interest is argued, until (page 101.) the statistical part is resumed. How much would this writer, and the numerous class to whom similar observations are applicable, gain in reputation, by thoroughly digesting their subject before they send their MSS. to the press; by explaining, in the beginning of their work, the fundamental principles which form the source of their reasoning; and by proceeding to make their subordinate conclusions flow in a regular channel from the fountain head!

We shall divide our remarks on Mr. Atcheson's publication into two parts, considering first his observations on the produce and trade of British North America, and next his arguments on the general question of the shipping interest. —The differences which have unfortunately existed for many years between our government and the United States, on the subject of their boundary line, are the first object of Mr. A.'s attention; particularly with regard to Passamaquoddy Bay, which lies at the Eastern extremity of that boundary. During Mr. Addington's administration, a convention was formed, (12 May, 1803,) by which that bay and its islands were ceded to and declared to belong to the United States: but Mr. Jefferson having followed the same course in regard to this instrument as in regard to the treaty of 1806, namely, having declined to ratify it, the question remains unsettled to

this day. The Americans, however, have occupied three islands in the bay, from which a very active smuggling trade is carried on with our neighbouring colonists. Yet, as no final cession of the bay and islands has been made on our part, Mr. Atcheson strenuously urges the resumption of them. —Another and a much more important point is the fact that our North American provinces are supplied from the United States, and not from Great Britain, with teas and East India goods of all sorts, with West India produce, and even in some degree with European manufactures. The duties on the importation of these articles are the same, whether coming from Great Britain or the United States; and the preference given to the latter arises chiefly from the greater cheapness of their freight in time of war. It is not, however, in North America alone that our colonists avail themselves of the means of smuggling which the flag of the United States affords; and the ensuing extract shews its prevalence in the West Indies, and calls loudly for a new modification of the duties:

'Extract from a letter from Kingston, Jamaica, dated the 2d of March, 1808.—"The quantity of nankeen cotton cloth alone consumed in this colony and in the Leeward Islands, has been computed to be in a ratio of ten to one of *smuggled* from the *United States*, against that imported in English bottoms; and which the officers of custom-house with all possible vigilance cannot by any means prevent. There are so many means of landing and vending those articles that no vigilance can prevent it. The quantity of other East India goods and foreign silks is beyond calculation."

We now present our readers with a specimen of the mistakes into which a writer is apt to fall, when he is wholly occupied with one side of a subject, and averse to entertain objections to a favourite theory. The passage relates to the abovementioned islands in Passamaquoddy Bay, in which the Americans have made settlements:

'From these islands the Americans carry on an illicit trade, most lucrative to themselves, but seriously detrimental and ruinous to the provinces of Nova Scotia and New Brunswick, whose inhabitants are supplied by them from thence with liquors, tobacco, teas, and all kinds of India and other manufactured goods, and occasionally with small quantities of pitch, tar, and turpentine, for which they receive in return specie, peltry, fish, lumber, grindstones, gypsum and other things, and thus they drain the British provinces of their most valuable articles.'

That this illicit trade lessens the whole amount of British shipping employed, few persons will be disposed to doubt; and that it diminishes also the profits of the parent-state many will be disposed to believe: but that it should be

'seriously

'seriously detrimental and ruinous to the provinces supplied,' we are utterly at a loss to conceive. Mr. Atcheson, like other writers on the same side of the question, makes no appeals to general reasoning: which if he had done, he would have found that 'detriment' of public wealth is caused by a diminution of productive capital: — that capital can be diminished by buying goods cheap would indeed be a novel proposition. Farther, he says that 'the Americans drain our provinces of their most valuable articles:' but do they get these articles without paying an equivalent; and what is trade in all countries but an exchange of equivalents?

The principal export of the province of Canada is wheat and flour; of the former, 800,000 bushels, and of the latter, 30,000 barrels, have been exported in a year. Great quantities of timber can likewise be exported from this and our other North American provinces, of which the forests are inexhaustible; and we learn with much satisfaction that the Canadians have greatly lessened the cost of preparing their timber, by a new construction of floating mills. Mr. A. moreover affords a hope that two voyages, instead of one, may be made from Quebec to this country in a year:

'From recent information, it appears there were at the close of last season, cargoes of timber prepared at Quebec for 100 sail of ships, for which sufficient tonnage could not be obtained; and it is the opinion of many persons well acquainted with the trade, that with common industry two voyages may be made in a year from Quebec to any part of Great Britain and Ireland, though it may be thought that the severity of the winter in that country is unfavourable, by reason of the rivers being frozen; but the reverse is the fact, for to active exertion in procuring timber, it proves a great facility, by enabling the wood-cutters to draw the timber from the woods on the snow, to the banks of rivers, from whence they are floated in the spring.'

Amid the many contradictions which a regard to truth obliges us to give to our well meaning but ill informed writers on commerce, it affords us the greatest pleasure to dwell on such of their arguments as are justified by sound policy. This is fortunately the case in the part of the work to which we are now referring. The inhabitants, we are told, are lessening the expence of preparing their timber by improving their mills; and a method is shewn to them of quickening its shipment, by driving it in winter along those easy paths which the frost forms for them. These are examples of the true means of improving a country. If our colonists will run this race of industry and ingenuity, they need fear the competition neither of the United States nor of any country in

the universe. That wealth, which always eludes the grasp of arbitrary regulation, will flow into their coffers. Whether as individuals or as nations, it is not by discouraging the competition of others, but by bending our whole attention to the improvement of our own means, that we succeed in rearing the structure of fortune.

It was in 1784 that Nova Scotia was divided into two provinces, namely Nova Scotia and New Brunswick. These provinces are important to the mother-country, both as affording naval stations, and as exporting timber, fish, and other salt provisions. In regard to the aptitude of the soil for grain and pasture, it is here stated:

'These two provinces, likewise, produce considerable crops of Indian corn, wheat, barley, rye, oats, peas, and beans. The cultivation of which might be much extended, if the provinces received due attention and encouragement: indeed, they have become objects highly interesting to the mother-country, and are deserving the attention of the legislature; who should direct inquiries to be made as to the nature, soil, and resources of them, the land being generally well adapted for the cultivation of all sorts of grain, hemp, flax, and tobacco.'—

'It is not, however, to be expected that the inhabitants of these two provinces will become extensive exporters of grain; the soil, as well as climate, being so much better adapted for other valuable pursuits, to grazing in particular. In all those parts which are called the New England States, it has by experience been found to be the most advantageous occupation; and, long as they have been settled, it is known they still prefer importing from other places the flour and corn they consume, to raising it themselves.'

We select these paragraphs, not with the intention of imputing any inconsistency to the writer, but to afford an example of the errors which a mind, that is absorbed in the pursuit of favourite notions, is liable to entertain. With such persons, and indeed with many others in a higher station, it is a maxim that we should make as much as possible "a monopoly of our own commerce." They are under the impression that the more completely we supply our own wants, and the less we take from foreigners, the greater will be our gains;—a very natural idea to a plain trader, but an idea very unworthy of the well informed mind which a legislator should possess. We ought to keep steadily in our recollection that all commerce is an exchange; that, unless we buy from foreigners, we cannot sell to them; and that the receipt of specie in return for goods, which was formerly accounted so advantageous an exchange, is now admitted to be no better than the receipt of any other commodity. Having impressed ourselves with these fundamental truths, our next step is to consider

consider in what consists that object which is the end of all our speculations, the increase of national wealth. This increase we shall find to consist, as already mentioned, in the increase of capital; and the quickest way of augmenting capital is not by labouring to raise a variety of commodities within ourselves, but to raise them at home or to buy them abroad according as we can get them cheapest. These plain truths lead to as plain a conclusion;—namely, that of allowing the merchant to pursue his interest in his own way, and of imposing the fewest possible legislative shackles on individual enterprize. Freedom is the soul of commerce, and the mainspring of national improvement.—As the gains of commerce, however, are always mutual, a case may be conceived in which two countries are so jealous of each other, that each will rather doom itself to a loss than consent to grow rich on the condition of enriching its rival. We may consider ourselves to be in some degree in this situation in regard to France; and of the two alternatives we may prefer a submission to that sacrifice, (and palliate it as we may, it is still a sacrifice,) which a compulsory restraint on commerce never fails to cause:—but in regard to the United States we are in no danger whatever; the increase of their wealth does not lessen our political safety; and we are therefore under no obligation to submit to a sacrifice, or to withhold from our traffic with them that complete liberty which will yield us the largest profit.

These general observations will render more easily intelligible the remark which we are about to make on the two extracts last quoted. The first passage expresses a wish that 'encouragement should be given to the cultivation of grain in Nova Scotia and New Brunswick;' while the second states that the soil as well as the climate is 'much better adapted for other valuable pursuits, particularly grazing.' Now we would recommend that, whatever encouragement is given, it should be extended not to the cultivation of grain, but to grazing, and those other objects for which the soil and the climate are so much better calculated. Much less loss will occur in importing a part of the grain which may be required, than in raising it in spite of the soil and climate; the capital, which in the latter case would be absorbed in agriculture, will yield a larger return when invested in a manner which will be seconded by the natural aptitude of the country; and it is immaterial whether we raise grain enough for our consumption, or not, provided that we create abundance of other commodities which will buy grain.

After having described the productions of the main-land, Mr. Atcheson proceeds to give us an account of the islands adjoining our North American provinces. The first of these is Cape Breton, which was erected in 1784 into a separate government. A large proportion of the land of this island is arable, and it abounds in timber and hard wood. From the coal mines, also, great advantages are derived; and the possession of this island is indispensable to the prosecution of the neighbouring fisheries.—St. John's (called since 1799 Prince Edward's Island,) abounds with timber of various sorts, and exports provisions to Nova Scotia. Its fisheries have declined since the war; or, according to Mr. Atcheson, since the suspension of the navigation act, which seems in his opinion to be a kind of palladium to individuals as well as to the nation. To a similar cause he attributes the decline of our Newfoundland fishery, but with the addition of a grievance which it is evidently within our own power to remedy; viz. the impress of the British seamen employed in this traffic, than which we cannot conceive any measure more impolitic.

We come now to that part of the present work which expatiates on the importance of the shipping interest, and urges the adoption of certain measures against the Americans which the author thinks would be beneficial to our navigation. We had intended to enter at some length into the merits of this question: but our space will permit us to make only a few observations on these much misunderstood topics. We agree most cordially in the importance of shipping to this country, and we look to our naval strength as to "the rock of our salvation:" but we can by no means allow that the measures proposed by the advocates of the shipping interest, and too often adopted by ministers, are the most likely to promote our naval power. They are formed on a superficial view of the subject, and indicate no depth of inquiry or reflection. They generally originate with persons who have not had the benefit of a liberal education; and they receive a sanction from men in office, who, whatever may have been their early attainments, are prevented, by the multiplicity of business, from analyzing the merits of the various questions submitted to them. Let us take, for example, the permission which the West India colonists request, "to barter produce with the Americans to the extent of the imported stores." That permission has been, and probably will continue to be, refused, because it would put seventy or eighty of our West India ships out of employ; and no attention is paid to the relief which the adoption of that measure would afford to our colonists,—nor to the increase of our

revenue

revenue consequent on the increase of their profits,—nor to the additional naval strength which that additional revenue would enable our government to maintain. All these, the ultimate consequences of the measure, are overlooked; and a decision is given on the strength of the first impression, namely, that it would put some of our merchantmen out of employ.

Although we have thus expressed our dissent from various measures brought forwards by the shipping interest, we are by no means disposed to deny the hardships under which that concern has laboured. We very readily believe that their business has been an unprofitable one during the whole or nearly the whole of the present war: but the true source of relief, in this as in other cases, is to lessen as much as may be possible the public burdens on them; and the abolition of the tonnage-duty would be one of the greatest benefits which any improvement in our mode of taxation could produce.

Of the general scope of Mr. Atcheson's sentiments, it will not be supposed, after the exceptions which we have made in particular cases, that we shall express commendation. Nor is his manner of communicating them calculated to attract either the applause of the public or the approbation of the critic. If he aims at becoming a popular writer, he must be much more concise, and must guard against those inaccuracies of style with which this volume is replete. In page 80, we have the expression, '*there pervades throughout* the whole of this examination, so strong a disposition to depreciate.' In the two following sentences, the relatives are so grossly misplaced, that we must ascribe the error, in both cases, to the press:

Page xxxiii. 'The different kinds of timber in the forests of these provinces are enumerated in other parts of these observations *which* from the numerous rivers and creeks that intersect the country, are brought,' &c.

Page cv, mentioning the Newfoundland fishery, the author says: 'It was discovered by the Cabots in 1507 and taken possession of for the crown of England, *which* they named *Terra de Buccaleos*, but did not settle any fishery there.'

The composition of the author does not occupy above a third part of the volume; the other two thirds consisting of an appendix, containing various documents; the principal of which are our three treaties with the Americans in 1783, 1794, and 1806, and the Report of the Committee of the House of Commons in July 1807, with the evidence appended. The publication of useful documents is always commendable; and Mr. A. is intitled to praise for the industry which he has here evinced: a sense of which, and a conviction of his sincerity, have influenced our mode of expressing our dissent from those

of his opinions which we consider as not only erroneous in principle, but as productive, under the present regulations of our commerce, of actual injury to the public.

Lowe.

ART. X. *Political, Commercial, and Statistical Sketches of the Spanish Empire in both Indies*; Reflections on the Policy proper for Great Britain at the present Crisis; and a View of the political Question between Spain and the United States respecting Louisiana and the Floridas, with the Claims of Great Britain, as founded on Treaty, to the commercial Navigation of the River Mississippi, &c. &c. &c. 8vo. pp. 156. 3s. 6d. Tipper. 1809.

THE verbosity of this title, as well as that of Mr. Atcheson's book which we have just noticed, is a warning to experienced Reviewers that the author is little accustomed to publication; and the errors, into which he almost always falls when attempting general conclusions, demonstrate that he has been more conversant with those detached notions which strike the man of mere practice, than with the connected thoughts which mark the philosophic inquirer. Like other men who are unacquainted with the principles of trade, the author affects to despise the science which teaches them; and he does not yield even to Lord Sheffield himself in enthusiastic admiration of our colonial system, or in the confidence with which he draws a positive inference from a scanty stock of information. As far as our general policy is concerned, therefore, the public will learn nothing from such writers, and we shall accordingly confine our notice of this tract to its local information; — a species of knowlege in which the writer is by no means deficient, and to which it is to be regretted that he did not restrict his endeavours to instruct others.

It is stated (page 20.) that the reign of Charles IId of Spain (corresponding to the time of our William IIId,) was the period at which that kingdom began to afford some facilities for the conveyance of English produce to its colonies. Our goods were carried in our own vessels to Cadiz, and there shipped off, in the name of Spanish merchants, in the annual galleons; and an abatement of twenty five per cent. took place in the duties with which Spain had formerly burdened our merchandise that was destined for the transatlantic market. Soon after this, in the reign of Queen Anne, was framed the contract which was so well known during the last century under the name of Assiento. It did not originate between Spain and England, but between Spain and France, and consisted in an engagement on the part of the French

Guinea

Guinea Company to supply Spanish America with negroes; the Company providing the whole capital requisite for the trade, but agreeing to share the profits with the Kings of France and Spain, each of whom was to receive a fourth part. At the peace of Utrecht, this contract came into our hands, as the present writer mentions in the following passage:

'When France and Spain were at length desirous of putting an end to the war, this contract was held out as a bonus to Great Britain; and Philip V. transferred it to us with many favourable modifications, and also with the extraordinary privilege of sending annually to the fair at Portobello, a ship of 500 tons, laden with European articles. By the ninth article of this Assiento, we were permitted to carry 800 negroes to Buenos Ayres; and it further declared, "That Her British Majesty, and the assientists in her name, may hold some parcels of land to be assigned them, by His Catholic Majesty, in the River of Plate, from the commencement of this Assiento, sufficient to plant, cultivate, and breed cattle upon, for the subsistence of the persons belonging to the Assiento, and their negroes, and may build houses of timber only, but shall not throw up the earth, nor make the slightest fortification, &c.!" In consequence of these arrangements, a rapid intercourse took place; British factories were established at Carthagena, Vera Cruz, Panama, Buenos Ayres, and several other settlements; by which means our merchants became possessed of much local information, and were enabled to know all their probable wants, and thus to assort their annual cargoes to existing circumstances. But it was not the legal traders alone, who derived benefit from these establishments; the merchants of Jamaica, and the other persons engaged in the contraband trade, were thereby enabled to suit the market, and ensure a ready sale for their cargoes, and a most beneficial commerce became the result.

'*'Tis* beyond our plan to notice the bubble which arose out of this Assiento; it is sufficient to observe, that the South Sea Company possessed it until the year 1750, when by the treaty of Madrid we gave up the four remaining years of the contract, and the Crown of Spain paid up a considerable balance, as a complete satisfaction to the Company. By this treaty also a complete stop was put to the foreign trade of the South Sea Company.

'Though Spain departed so far from her general policy, as to permit a foreign nation to participate in the profits of her colonial commerce, yet, with respect to the colonies themselves, she adhered strictly to the ancient jealous maxims, and prohibited all commercial intercourse between the provinces, whose shores are washed by the Great South Sea. This was indeed a prohibition of a very injurious nature, as each province possessed peculiar productions, the reciprocal interchange of which might have proved a mutual stimulus to the industrious exertions of the population of each, and thus have added to the power and wealth of the mother-country. At length, in 1774, a royal edict was sent out permitting a free trade, and a general intercourse took place both on the continent and in the islands, so that Cuba alone *tripled her commerce in the short space of ten years.*

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'When we take a general geographical view of the Western Continent, we cannot help observing, that it is of a form extremely favourable to commercial intercourse; not like Africa, which is composed of one solid mass, unbroken by inlets of the ocean, possessing few navigable rivers, and these so far distant from each other, that a great proportion of the continent seems doomed to eternal barbarism, and to remain for ever incapable of carrying on an extensive communication with the rest of the world. In all these respects, however, the New World is as well supplied as the Old; for the Gulph of Mexico, between the two parts of the continent, is similar to a Mediterranean Sea, and affords great facility of communication with a large portion of the mass. As to Southern America, it is entirely surrounded by the ocean, except where the narrow Isthmus of Darien joins it with the sister continent; and though it is intersected by no salt water inlets, the greatest part of its interior is yet of easy access from the large rivers with their tributary streams, which flow from the gigantic Andes, diffusing fertility, and facilitating intercourse.'

We find in this pamphlet an idea which we believe will be new to most of our readers, viz. that an opened intercourse with Spanish America would afford an excellent field for those of the Catholic youth of Ireland who are educated for trade, the inhabitants of the Spanish Colonies being almost all Catholics, though not immediately connected with the Pope; for it is a remarkable circumstance, amid all the zeal which the Kings of Spain have professed for the Court of Rome, that they have excluded the papal dominion from their colonies, and have constituted themselves the only heads of the Catholic church in these extensive regions. The right of patronage, the disposal of all ecclesiastical benefices, and in short the whole church authority in Spanish America, are vested in the Crown.

The city of Mexico, which is one of the best built in the world, contains 150,000 inhabitants; and the port of Acapulco, situated on the West coast of Mexico, and so well known for its Manilla trade, is much superior to any other harbour in these seas. It lies in 17° N. lat., and can afford secure anchorage for several hundred sail. An island, of a mile and a half in length, lying without the entrance, defends the harbour from the swell of the sea, while it leaves a channel for ingress and egress at either end. The town of Acapulco has hitherto been unhealthy: but this would in a great measure be remedied by the public improvements which never fail to accompany successful industry. The trade with the Philippines was formerly carried on in one or two annual galleons, which took silver from Aculpulco and brought back spices, china-ware, muslins, calicoes, and other Eastern articles, collected at Manilla by country ships from various quarters: but

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in the year 1785, the Spanish ministry, influenced (it is said) by the reasoning of the Abbé Raynal, established the Royal Philippine Company, with a capital of 1,300,000l. sterling; to this Company the Acapulco trade was made over, and the ports of the Philippine islands were opened to the ships of all nations. A speedy increase of population and wealth was the consequence of this liberal policy, and the number of the Chinese resident in Manilla soon amounted to 30,000. The real value of the Philippine islands is as yet very imperfectly known, because, though above a million of persons have already consented to acknowlege the sovereignty of Spain, the inland parts contain many considerable tribes whom the Spaniards have not subdued. The climate is accounted healthy, and the products of the soil are very various; —a new proof, among many others, of the immense field that would be opened to commercial adventure by the emancipation of Spanish America.

From the Philippine islands, the author proceeds to the description of California; the most remarkable circumstance respecting which is that, like Paraguay, it was indebted for the chief part of the civilization which it enjoys, to the indefatigable industry of the Jesuits. The writer treats at great length of the political and commercial advantages of the Floridas, and seems to discover much solicitude that no part of the Spanish Colonies should be allowed to fall into the hands of the United States.

In proceeding to the Southward, the next object of interest is the Isthmus of Panama; with the question of the practicability of cutting a canal from the Atlantic to the Pacific Oceans: but the writer does not seem to be sufficiently aware of the means by which this beneficent undertaking might be accomplished, either at the isthmus or at the Lake of Nicaragua. Of the interior of the province of Quito, little was formerly known, but it is now discovered to possess many advantages. That district, which is called the Valley of Quito, is a table-land raised 1460 fathoms (or a mile and a half) in perpendicular height above the level of the ocean; an elevation nearly equal to the summit of Etna: so that, although directly under the Equator, this region possesses the advantages of the finest temperature.

No language can convey an adequate idea of the aukward and unprofitable manner in which the Spaniards work their mines. While they are unable to extract above two thirds of the silver from the ore, the waste of quicksilver amounts to double the weight of the silver produced. Helm, the mineralogist, writes that, when he visited the mines, every

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hundred weight of copper cost the Spaniards 35l. sterling, and occupied a month in roasting; while he produced the same quantity in four hours and a half, and at a twentieth of the expence! In such hands, we may be well assured that the riches of America have not yet been brought to light. Chili, in particular, seems to enjoy incalculable advantages; its climate is highly salubrious; and its productions, both in the animal and in the vegetable world, are rich and various in the extreme.

The writer's short account of the smuggling trade between Trinidad and the Spanish main is curious:

'The commerce with the Spanish main was also considerable during the period of the contraband trade, and has again risen to a great height since we got possession of Trinidad. It has been no uncommon thing during the latter part of last war, to see ten or a dozen Spanish launches lying off the pier at Puerto d'Espagna in that island; these vessels left the Spanish ports as coasters apparently carrying nothing but serons of tallow, in which however they had doubloons concealed, as well as in the lining of the boats. On arriving off the Bocas del Drago, they pushed in under Spanish colours, unmolested by His Majesty's cruizers, who never interfered with them, except sometimes to send a boat for the purpose of purchasing fowls or fruit, which they generally brought, knowing that they would find a ready market in case of falling in with an English man of war. Their commercial transactions were soon finished; the *patron* of the launch called on a merchant; sold his cargo of tallow at the market price, perhaps from five to seven hundred dollars, bespoke a quantity of English goods, such as cottons, platillas, hardware, and haberdashery, looked at a few samples, and deposited his cash in hard gold to pay for them; and such bargains, to the amount of eight-and-twenty hundred pounds sterling, have been known to take place *in the course of half an hour*.

'This traffic was not only carried on with the small settlements on the western side of the Gulph of Paria, but also with the whole coast of Cumana and the Caraccas, on the one side, and with the river of Oronoque on the other, as vessels frequently arrived from Angustura the principal settlement on that river. With such a trade, in time of war with Spain, we may naturally conclude that our intercourse must be profitable indeed, in case of an amicable arrangement.'

In the concluding part of this pamphlet, we find an argument which has of late been a favourite topic with the less enlightened among our merchants;—namely the practicability of being supplied from British North America alone, with those articles which we have hitherto drawn from that quarter and the United States jointly. The individuals who, like this writer, maintain the affirmative of this proposition, no doubt mean well both to Great Britain and her Colonies: but they

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err greatly in imagining that the mode which they point out would promote that end.

This author informs us that he has been occupied in making personal observations on the four quarters of the globe during the last twenty years. His style is in general good, though sometimes disfigured by quaint expressions; the most unfortunate of which is perhaps that of 'inimical rivals.' (page 11.)—A Table of Contents should have been prefixed.—On the whole, we shall be glad to be favoured with more of his statistical observations: but we can give him no encouragement to enter on the field of political disquisition.

Lowe.

MONTHLY CATALOGUE,

For JULY, 1809.

BIOGRAPHY.

Art. 11. *Sketch of the Life of the late George Chapman*, LL.D, addressed particularly to Parents and Tutors, exhibiting the Method of correcting the Tempers, and improving and enlarging the Minds, of Youth, which that eminent Teacher so successfully practised. 8vo. pp. 30. 1s. Cadell and Davies.

How unlike the pompous displays of biography which, at the present day, encounter us from all quarters, is this unassuming pamphlet! A man is now scarcely thought to have lived to any purpose, unless his memoirs swell to one or two splendid quartos; and if incidents are wanting to protract the narrative, his correspondence is laid under heavy contribution, in order to give bulk and tangibility to the memorial. The writer of this sketch of Dr. Chapman's Life has not followed the fashionable mode, nor adopted any of the ordinary expedients: but within the compass of a few pages, all that it was deemed necessary to relate of Dr. Chapman is compressed. We are told what were the prominent features in the character of the deceased, how he spent his time, and to what objects he devoted his labours; and enough is recorded to excite respect for his virtues and his literary attainments. To the important province of tuition his talents were directed, and his labours in this line are stated to have been eminently useful to others, since he made many good scholars; though, unlike the tutors of most modern academies, he did not accumulate a fortune for himself, but died poor after a long and active life. He was born in the parish of Alvah, county of Banff, Aug. 15, 1723; was educated at the grammar school, where he rendered himself conspicuous; became first rector of the grammar school at Dumfries, and afterward of the academy of Banff; and in both situations was distinguished as having advanced those seminaries to a flourishing state. From Banff he removed to Edinburgh,

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and died at his house in Rose-street in that city, Feb. 22, 1806, in the 83d year of his age. It is reported of him that, in the superintendance of his schools, 'he resolved never unnecessarily to violate the feelings of his pupils, nor have recourse to any thing bordering on severity, until every means of gentleness had failed;' and his practice we recommend to the consideration of all school-masters. We are farther informed 'that he devoted the whole of his attention to the most easy, obvious, and natural means of developing the powers of the mind, and inspiring the principles of virtue, religion, and public spirit; and with such happy effect, that not only were his pupils distinguished for their classical attainments, on their entering the literary classes in the University, but their conduct in public life, in all its various departments, was almost universally peculiarly correct.'

Such a happy instance of success in the momentous, seriously momentous, business of education, ought not to be disregarded; and Dr. Chapman's *Treatise on Education* (see our account of it, M. R. Vol. xlix. p. 88.) acquires importance from the experience of the author For the benefit of his family, a new edition of that tract, with his other works, is preparing for the press; and we presume that the subscription, considering the eminent character of Dr. C. and his numerous connections, will be respectable and efficient.

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NOVELS.

Art. 12. *The Knights*; Tales illustrative of the Marvellous. By R C. Dallas, Esq. 12mo. 3 Vols. 15s. Boards. Longman and Co. 1808.

These volumes are dedicated to Mr Pratt, who is figuratively told that he 'will find in them a seed of gratification for his heart, by the warmth of which, it will be expanded into a pleasing flower of friendship.' The tales consist ostensibly but of two stories, which, however, serve to introduce various other Fairy Tales, Allegories, and Magician's Tales. Of the first, viz. 'the Knight of Tours,' we cannot speak very favourably; it displays some invention: but it has so little either of interest or moral, and the characters are so unnatural and the incidents so incongruous, that, if the name of a veteran novelist were not announced in the title-page, we should have been tempted to consider it as the production of a much more juvenile understanding.

In the second story, 'The Knights Errant,' the reader is somewhat relieved from the perplexities of the first by meeting with an imitation of Don Quixote; and with a squire whose blunders, proverbs, and greediness emulate those of Sancho Pança, in every respect but in that of exciting an equal degree of risibility: while his master sets out in search of adventures, to captivate a romantic widow, whose head, as well as that of her maid Babet, has been turned by reading tales of chivalry. De Joinville, the hero, after having wandered some little way, seats himself in an old tree, and, taking up some old leaves, is transported by them into an allegorical country, of which a long description is given; and this allegory, we think, is the best part of the work. It contains several ingenious strokes of satire, and some good reflections: but the names taken

from the Greek should have been made more intelligible to the mere English reader, since, unless they are understood, some of the point will be lost. We were particularly pleased with the passage in which Benvolio is described as being on the point of yielding to the fury excited in him by an arbitrary prince, who robbed him of his horse: but, consulting first his 'Syneideeses' or *the Mirror of Judgment*, 'he saw two figures of himself, the one, naked, unarmed, gentle and patient, the other with a sabre in his hand, inflicting dreadful blows on his defenceless counterpart;' and being thus warned that those who yield to anger are themselves the greatest sufferers from their own violence, he desists, and resolves to endure the irremediable evil patiently.—This allegory breaks off abruptly; and we are then told that the old leaves were the leaves of an old book, with whose hero the romantic De Joinville identified himself by the force of imagination, and, sending his squire to fetch it again, he meets, instead of it, with a Fairy Tale very inferior in merit. The fair widow Felicia, on changing her name and attire for those of the male sex, also dreams a long 'Magician's Story:' after which, being attacked by some countrymen, De Joinville and his squire come opportunely to rescue her and Babet; and the terrified dames are convinced, by the fright which they experience, of the folly of their past fancies. They therefore all go home, and live very rationally.

On the whole, we think that this work displays considerable powers of invention, and some humour. The sentiments and language are occasionally nervous and striking; at other times, the style is a little tinctured with incorrectness and vulgarity; and we wish to weed out such expressions as the following: '*It was, who should have him*,'—'he said a thousand *extravagant things in a breath, which set all the women agog for him*,'—'in short he was so *be-praised*,'—'*it is the thing* to appear sometimes tired of them.'

Art. 13. *Susan.* 12mo. 2 Vols. 7s sewed. Booth. 1809.

This production promises to class among the *blue-winged* ephemera of the year, and we will not seek to impede its feeble flitting among the gentle judges who may be disposed to bestow on it the sunshine of their smiles. The language is always modest, though sometimes ungrammatical; and the tale contains a prodigious number of fevers, together with several faintings, two duels, and one or two deaths.

Art. 14. *Julia of England.* By Mrs. Norris. 12mo. 4 Vols. 18s. Boards. Tipper. 1808.

Novel-Heroes and Heroines of the present day seem only to exist in each other's arms; and Julia of England and her *two* lovers, together with the rest of their friends and connections, find reasons for embracing mingled with all the wonders with which their history abounds.—The gentlemen also vie with the ladies in weeping and dropping down senseless; while the latter innocently drive them to these extremities, by the slowness of comprehension with which they receive all the evidences of female attachment. Julia's method of paying her debts in London appeared to us rather too heroical: but we were sufficiently interested for her to be somewhat

what indignant at seeing her treated so much like a child by the seniors of the party, that her own wedding day is carefully concealed from her till the morning of its arrival, when it is disclosed as a grand surprize and announced to her by a new gown being placed on her chair!—These are among the minor faults of this novel: but we were more seriously displeased when we found that the author has introduced a dialogue on *Duelling*, in favour of which lamentable custom the hero calmly argues, till Julia tacitly acquiesces in the propriety of his fighting.—We do not hope that the efforts of any novelist, directed against duelling, could succeed in preventing it: but we think that all who profess to be moral writers owe it to society to mention a practice so blameable, only to expose the false notions of honour on which it is founded and the misery by which it may be followed.—'Julia of England' has, however, some recommendations which we are happy to notice: the general style of the work is pleasing; its moral precepts are usually good; its interest is well preserved; and some novelty and much sense are displayed in delineating the character of Henry Wynneford: a young man who, neglecting the wishes and frustrating the hopes of wise and kind parents, chuses a wife by whose beauty and rank he is dazzled, but who disappoints his ill-founded hopes of her excellence; while his maturer judgment tells him that the mistress whom his parents had selected for him was of a character most calculated for his felicity.

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Art. 15. *The Man of Sorrow.* By Alfred Allendale, Esq. 12mo. 3 Vols. 15s. Boards. Tipper. 1808.

On opening this work, we confess that we were displeased with the author's selection of a motto for the title page. It is taken from the scriptures, and is part of a prophetical description of our Saviour's sufferings, and therefore is too irreverently applied when made to characterise the hero of a novel. Abundance of melancholy mottos might be found; and the author seems in general to have been at no loss for quotations of all sorts.—We were sorry moreover to perceive a spirit of licentiousness pervading this history; and we can assure Mr. Alfred Allendale (or whatever be his name) that, instead of heightening the effect of his performance by a variety of exceptionable passages, he has, by such '*interlardations*,' (a word for which we are indebted to him,) very much diminished the interest which his Hero's disappointments might have excited. Some of Musgrave's first sorrows are indeed too trivial to claim much commiseration; and though, at an early period of his history, he murders a man in a duel, yet this accident is among the least afflictive of his adventures: because, instead of overwhelming him with his usual despair, all the effect which it has on his mind is that when 'he had ordered his supper and sat down quietly to reflect on the events of the last week, upon summing up he did not feel that internal satisfaction which his conscience hitherto had used to afford him.' Some of his calamities are, however, really lamentable: but they are related in a manner which enables the compassionate reader to consider them with the utmost composure.

Pathos is not Mr. Alfred Allendale's *forte*, and indeed we should be puzzled to state what *is*: not novel-writing altogether, we imagine, from the specimen before us; and yet his work contains a delineation of squalid misery in London which is well written, though revolting, and which reminded us of Crabbe's description of the filth and vice in a Country-Town. We found also the history of a *Crim. Con.* Trial which is penned with some humour; and a few happy sentences evince taste and feeling, but they are thinly scattered,

"Like gleanings of an Olive-tree they shew
Here and there one, upon the top-most bough."

On the other hand, the general style of the work evinces a flippancy which is neither authorized by the portion of talent that is displayed, nor excused by the morality which is inculcated. The Hero's misfortunes are either the result of his ill-luck or the consequences of his benevolence; and the female character, who is the most extolled, is a young woman who elopes from her mother, carries on a clandestine correspondence, and contrives assignations with her lover, without fear or shame, as mere matters of course. D.º

Art 16. *Mandeville Castle*; or the Two Elinors. 12mo. 2 Vols. 7s. Boards. Booth.

To notice the titles of works like the present is quite sufficient. It merely forms one in the common class of Novels. O.

Art. 17. *The Mysterious Wanderer.* By Sophia Reeve. 12mo. 3 Vols. 12s. Boards. Richardsons.

It appears that this is a lady's first attempt; and we shall only remark on it that she has been unfortunate in the selection of her heroes, some of whom require the discipline of St. Luke's, while others demand the severer correction of the Old Bailey. O.

Art. 18. *The Twin Sisters*; or, the Advantages of Religion. 12mo. Boards. Harris.

We doubt not that this little volume was written with a good and pious intention, but we much question the utility of the practice which would display the benefits of devotion, and allure the mind to religion, by the means of Novels. O.

Art. 19. *The Wedding Day*, by Elizabeth Isabella Spence. 12mo. 3 Volumes. 12s. Boards. Longman and Co.

We could not avoid noticing many inaccuracies in the language of this tale: but these, we are aware, are trifles which give little concern to writers, and less interruption to readers, in this line. It is saying something favourable, however, to acknowlege that more serious faults than those of composition and management are not imputable to Miss Spence; whose former productions have made her known to the frequenters of circulating libraries. G 2. O.

RELIGIOUS.

Art. 20. *The Alexandrian School*; or a Narrative of the first Christian Professors in Alexandria; with Observations on the Influence they still maintain in the Established Church. Crown 8vo. pp. 58. 2s. sewed. Clarke. 1809.

That high veneration in which the Fathers and Schoolmen were once held is now almost extinct, and an examination of their writings will rather contribute to obliterate than to restore their authority. As guides in the departments of critical inquiry, sound reasoning, and pure christianity, they certainly are intitled to no respect; and the influence which they appear to hold in established forms, and in articles of faith, is more the result of former reverence than of any present esteem. As long, however, as appeals are made to *Jerom*, *Austin*, and other similar oracles, in justification of tenets evidently at variance with the truths of the Gospel, such tracts as that which is now before us, exposing the weakness and even the childishness of the Fathers, must be considered as useful. The enlightened and liberal writer is very solicitous to deliver our Establishment from the bondage of scholastic divinity, and to promote that revision of our Articles for which some of her wisest and ablest members have publicly expressed their ardent wishes. Looking forwards to that desirable event, he deems it his duty 'to sprinkle the public mind with antecedent notices, and to stimulate expectation;' and in a concise as well as pleasing manner, he has brought together a variety of respectable opinions which bear at once on the point. On the subjects of "Original Sin *" and "works done before Faith in Christ," his observations and references peculiarly deserve attention. He concludes with asking; 'Is it not unbecoming the dignity of an English Divine, to search for sacred grain in the dark granaries of antiquity; should he not rather look for it in the hallowed furrow of the Scripture?'

We recommend this Essay to the perusal of High Churchmen, and to the Evangelical Preachers, since it may furnish them with useful hints, and cannot tire them. We are, we believe, indebted for it to Mr. Jerningham. Mo.y.

Art 21. *A serious Admonition to a professed Christian*, who has violated his Marriage Vow by living in Adultery, and the sinful and destructive Tendency of evil Communications. 8vo. 1s. Wilson.

Among all ranks, Adultery is very prevalent; and if it could be checked by serious admonition, this pamphlet, from the solemnity with which it addresses the conscience, might serve to reclaim offenders: but in the present state of society we despair of reforming the Great by pamphlets; and while the Noble and the Opulent set bad examples and *glory in their shame*, the multitude will not be less scrupulous than their superiors in gratifying their passions. D.o

Art. 22. *Discourses moral and religious, adapted to a Naval Audience;* preached on Board His Majesty's ship, the Tremendous,

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* On the doctrine of Original Sin, the author has introduced a valuable remark from Bishop Taylor, which merits the consideration of those who contend for this tenet:

"Since no church did ever enjoin to any catechumen, any repentance for original sin, it seems horrible that any man should be damned for that, for which no man is bound to repent."

John Osborn, Esq., Commander, during the Years 1802, 1803, and 1804, by the Rev. Robert Baynes, LL. B. and of Sidney College, Cambridge. 8vo. pp. 630. 12s. Boards. Longman and Co

Mr. Baynes apprehends that 'for the introduction to the world of a work of the present nature, little apology will appear necessary, when these two circumstances are considered together,—the utility of its scope; and that there has nothing yet been published of a similar comprehension and adaptation.' He is aware that 'some excellent discourses,' delivered to a naval audience, have already been printed: but he thinks that they were *too few*: and, he adds, 'a work appeared to me much wanted, that would unfold to this useful class of British subjects the great and necessary truths of religion and virtue, in a full, clear, comprehensive, methodical, and familiar manner—in a manner adapted to their peculiar situation, and capable of making the most forcible and lasting impressions on their minds. This, it has been my endeavour to supply in the following discourses.' He admits that 'the mode of adapting a system of moral and religious instruction to such a peculiar class of men as sailors will vary with different instructors; and indeed, this adaptation, in some particulars, both of style and in the mode of treatment, requires no little portion of address, to be at once striking and beneficial to such an audience.' For himself, he adds, he hopes that he 'may be permitted to say, that an uninterrupted acquaintance of eight or nine years, under almost every circumstance of situation, with this class of men, affords every chance of being informed as to their peculiar habits and manners; and of suggesting the best means of adapting to them a course of moral and religious instruction.'

'On the subject of morals, (continues Mr. B) I have followed Mr. Paley in many instances; considering with him the will of God as the ground of obligation in Christian morality.'—'With respect to the doctrines of Christianity, they are given as professed by the Mother-church of England, of which, indeed, the major part of my audience were members; and in the life and acts of our Saviour I have borrowed largely from Dr. Taylor, as being a writer so fully and feelingly expressive of the great, the amiable, and blessed Author of our holy religion, whose life and character he has delineated'

We esteem this attempt as truly laudable; and we hope that it will meet with encouragement. Some commanders of ships, we know, (and we wish that the practice was general,) when no chaplain is on board, give attention themselves to religious services; and in these cases such a volume as the present might furnish seasonable and beneficial assistance.—To the sixty-three sermons, here supplied, is added a discourse on Mutiny, preached off Cadiz, July the 6th, 1798, on the execution of three Mutineers; which is sensible, striking, and well suited to the sad occasion on which it was delivered.

Art. 23. *Sermons on different Subjects*, by the Rev. John Hewlett, B. D, Morning preacher at the Foundling-hospital, and Lecturer

turer of the United parishes of St. Vedast Foster, and St. Michael Le-Queen. Vol. 3d. 8vo. pp. 469. 9s. Boards. Johnson.

Publications of this kind, both as pamphlets and as volumes, press on us so largely and frequently, that it is often impossible for us to allot to them more than a few general remarks. The nature and merit of Mr. Hewlett's compositions are known to the public by the former volumes with which he has favoured them. In the present, the number of discourses is twenty-five; and all of them are sensible, (though unequal in merit,) and calculated to promote the most weighty and valuable purposes. In considering the *called* and *chosen*, sermon 23, we observe that Mr. H. explains the latter phrase to mean such as were, or may yet be, appointed to stations of difficulty and importance in the christian church.—In that which was preached on *Trinity-Sunday*, he harangues generally on the mysterious nature of the Great and adorable God whom we worship; a subject on which he was not likely to encounter opposition or dissent.

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POETRY.

Art. 24. *The Renovation of India*, a Poem. With the Prophecy of Ganges, an Ode. Crown 8vo. 6s. Boards. Cradock and Joy. 1808.

It is honourable to the British character, that a general desire prevails for rendering our possession of India beneficial to the inhabitants of that populous peninsula. When a philanthropist contemplates this subject, he is animated to a sort of poetic rapture. He surveys a wide region in which much requires to be done, enormous evils prevail, and the blessings of nature have been counteracted by all the miseries that are accumulated on a people by bad government and enervating superstitions. Though our connection with the East originates in selfishness, it is possible to render it advantageous to the inhabitants, and to confer on them benefits superior to those which we receive from them. Such is the idea which inspires the benevolent writer of the present poem. To the past history and present state of India he turns his thoughts; and his ardent wish is to diffuse science, good government, and pure religion among the Hindoos. He admits that he has given a rapidity to changes, which in the ordinary rotation of events are of slow developement; and that a single act of the East-India Company has made the Ganges a false prophet: but still he trusts that the poetic state which he has depicted is not a mere illusion, and that a time will come when the Renovation which he has delineated will take place.

The generosity of this author's sentiments claims our praise, and we were not pleased at making the discovery that his benevolent conceptions are not always most happily expressed. By the abundance of critical disquisition which ushers in these poems, we were induced to expect performances of the first-rate quality: but it is easier to preach than to practise, and to lay down rules for the production of exquisite poetry than to write finished poems. In one respect we give the writer credit for his good judgment; viz. in abstaining from 'the high-

high-sounding vocabulary of Oriental names,' as his poem is intended solely for English readers. In his selection, also, of striking circumstances, he has shewn his taste: but, when he proceeds to "build the lofty rhyme," he fails, and the *tout ensemble* has no striking effect. The conclusion of the poem, which relates to the triumphs of Christianity, will justify our sentence. Of the first part, it is not easy to make English; and the sense of the latter is not very lucid:

'The songs of Zion wait thee.—He, whose gaze
One hour to worship and remember, came
Afar, rejoicing on their distant path,
The Wisest of the East,—even while he lay,
In helplessness of infancy, and clung
To the frail mortal arm, where Seraphs fix'd
Their ardent eye of tenderness, yet, awed,
Approach'd not,—the victorious Lord of death,
Whose voice is immortality,—the Prince,
Whose step is on the stars of heaven, who bears
The sceptre, blazing with ten thousand suns,
That lights and rules the universe,—the hail'd
Of prostrate Worlds, is nigh. To climes, where erst,
Musing high wishes yet despairing, wept
The pilgrim sages, at the doubtful dream
Of holier hopes to man,—who * first the knee
Bent, proudly honour'd, where all heaven adores,—
The bright Assurer, the Deliverer, comes,
And on the darkness of the Orient looks
The morn celestial. Ope your shadowy gates,
Ye vacant temples of the night!—the gloom
Of dawnless ages flies,—the spectre-forms
Vanish,—the living glory fills their shrines.
Bend in the blaze, ye nations, as with steps
Of light he comes majestic!—Mark that eye,
Which, even on *the betrayer* †, when the glance
Of meek-brow'd Angels flash'd a glad revenge,
Look'd with so mild a sorrow, with a gaze
Of such all-melting pity, that the heart,
Which shrunk not in the guilt, subdued, yet tost
More frantic, could but snatch a dead repose,
In the mild momentary plunge of death,
—No sorrow looks it now.—Yet even its joy
Triumphant, but like pitying mercy, beams
With majesty of love.—From land to land
The voice of gladness shouts.—The aged Deep
Listens, and, answering from his cave, lifts high
His hoary locks delighted:—for HE COMES.—
The Hosts of Heaven are with him.—Ope your gates,
Ye proudly silent temples, to your Lord!—

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* "And when they were come into the house, they saw the young child with Mary his mother, *and fell down and worshipped him.*"

† 'Iscariot.'

Nor close ye, till, at thunder of the voice
Omnipotent, Eternity, that sunk
Lull'd by creation's spreading sound, shall wake,—
The sleeper of ten thousand years shall start
In sudden strength majestic from the gloom,
And lift her eyes undazzled to the blaze,
And spread her circling arms from orb to orb,
And bid them cease to be;—when rushing worlds,
The comets of the infinite, shall flash
Loose thro' the gloom, and the last thundering shock
Of Earth and Suns still shout their worshipp'd God.'

We take no notice of the introductory poetic address to a friend, nor of the Ode at the end, but by the above extract we leave our readers to judge of the author's powers. Some of his compound epithets are peculiar; such as '*noon-eyed* giant,' applied to the sun. Mo.y.

Art. 25. *A poetical Picture of America*, being Observations made during a Residence of several Years at Alexandria, and Norfolk, in Virginia; illustrative of the Manners and Customs of the Inhabitants: interspersed with Anecdotes, arising from a general Intercourse with Society in that Country, from the Year 1799 to 1807. By a Lady. 12mo 4s. Vernor and Co. 1809.

A picture of America in doggerel rhimes, but not a *poetical* picture; unless this epithet be taken in a sense which the fair writer, we suppose, cannot mean. We are very modestly told that 'no muse is invoked;' and, as the Lady seems to have no acquaintance whatever on the forked hill, we should have commended her prudence had she abstained from any trespass on the manor of the Muses, and confined herself to the plains of humble prose. Nothing is gained by lazy and hobbling rhymes, except it be the amusement of the reader at the expence of the author; for it is impossible, when verse is execrably bad, to refrain from laughing at it, whether the subject be the travels or even the sorrows of a Lady. For example:

'Unwilling serious thoughts to check,
I took a place upon the deck'

Farther on, we contemplate the lady at her ease, regardless even of the restraints of rhyme:

'We'd time enough to look *about*,
The wind grew slack – the mate had *sport*.'

The state of society in Alexandria is thus depicted:

'Such dull stupidity was there
I thought it seem'd exceeding clear
That those who chose to live and *stay*
In this same *Alexandria*,
Must feed on air, or for a treat,
Their household furniture soon eat.'

At Norfolk, the lady promenaded to "see the lions:"

The

'The weather fine, I walk'd *about*
To see the town, and view the *fort*.'

To open our eyes respecting the supposed cheapness of living in America, it is hinted

'That living is not near so low
As people hope when first they go.'

Sometimes the lady "cares not a pin" for grammar, when it opposes the formation of a rhyme; though, in general, she is not very nice in this latter respect *:

'Sometimes the young *men* smart *appears*
And some look well, spite of their ears.'

In allusion to female resources in America, we are presented with this *somehowing* couplet:

'As money must be had somehow,
There every lady has a cow.'

The commodities with which the markets in Virginia are supplied "*make a figure*" in these elegant lines:

'The mutton tolerably fat,
The veal as lean as any cat.'

'Small birds that ev'ry taste may hit
They bring from blackbirds to tom-tit.'

'The other crabs you cheap may buy
Eighteen for fourpence halfpenny.'

We are very glad to see that this book is printed by subscription, since benevolence is certainly better than taste! Mo. y.

Art. 26. *Pursuits of Agriculture*; a satirical Poem in Three Cantos, with Notes. 8vo. Cantos I and II. 5s. J. J. Stockdale. 1808.

As the word *Philosophism* was invented to express that spurious philosophy which endeavours to usurp the honours of the true, so this laughing bard has employed the term *Agriculturism* to denote a bastard kind of Agriculture, which has nothing really useful belonging to it, and therefore becomes a legitimate object of ridicule. With this Agriculturism, our modern Hudibras makes himself merry; and in prose as well as in verse, he lays on the lash of satire with great dexterity. The Norfolk Agricultural Society is more especially the butt against which he discharges his arrows; though they glance in general at that rage for agricultural experimentalizing, or rather for reporting experiments and supposed discoveries, under which the press has for some time groaned. We transcribe the dedication, as indicative of the kind of warfare which the author designs to prosecute:

* In one place, *milk* is selected as a rhyme to *think*.

'To all the members, ordinary and extraordinary, of the Norfolk Agricultural Society, and to all other philosophical and scientific Agriculturists of nice palate, keen appetite, wide swallow and strong digestion, this dish of puffs, dressed by the most approved rules of fashionable cookery, is most respectfully served up (though without their permission) by their devoted servant, and sincere admirer,

'THE AUTHOR.'

While the satirist thus announces his intention of making sport with the Society, he disclaims all idea of laughing at the important objects which it professedly embraces: but he adds; 'At the strange unsuitableness of means to ends; at their affectation of science, at the queer novelty of some of their discoveries; at the profound gravity with which they talk nonsense, and at their egregious gullibility, I do laugh, because I cannot help it.' Indeed he does laugh, and with no small effect; and after the agreeable shake with which he has treated our old sides, we are not disposed, for the sake of ingratiating ourselves with the Society, to say a word against either his Hudibrastics or his long notes. On the contrary, we are obliged to him for both, and we are of opinion that his satire will not be played off altogether in vain. His ridicule of the modern practice of rendering sheep, which are intended to be eaten, so excessively fat as to be fit only for the tallow-chandler, is well conceived; and this part of the poem, as no unfair sample of the verse, we shall not hesitate to transcribe;

'Wise Nature makes, the wise maintain,
Nothing superfluous or vain.
Would she could teach her handmaid, Art,
To practise as discrete a part!
And not poor harmless sheep oppress
With such enormous loads of grease,
Nor follow such expensive plans
For deluging of dripping-pans.
Alas! what tantalizing meat
Too dear to buy, too fat to eat!
'Tis an odd way to make a plenty,
That one should eat enough for twenty,
And then, *per contra*, that a score
Of full-gorged wethers, yield no more
Of what is neither fat nor bone,
Than one old mumbling toothless crone.
'The dog-star rages! see they run
Sweating beneath the noon-day sun.
Some curious sight must urge their speed—
Curious and filthy too indeed!
Seest thou yon sturdy swelter'd lubber
Staggering beneath a load of blubber?
What is it? take a nearer peep;
Can'st thou not guess it? *a prize sheep.*
All is so level, smooth, and sleek,
For head, legs, tail, in vain you seek.

What

What do you see that man can swallow? *
One narrow stripe 'twixt bone and tallow.
All else, once food for watering lips,
Must now fill troughs to make long dips.†

" Say, wise improvers, say *cui bono*,
Must all be thus o'erloaded?" " Oh no!"
Such cost and care, and time and pains
Would never answer current gains;
Such wadded waistcoats none would put on
Vile carcases of market mutton.
That would be, what you seem to say,
Turning the penny t'other way.
Our nobler aims, to win a prize—
To make the crowd ope wond'ring eyes—
To grace our boards with silver cups—
And make gull'd gawkies hire our tups;
Then, turn from the bamboozled crew
And chuckle in our sleeves perdu."

In a note to the second part, the writer enters the lists seriously against the Agriculturists, after having designated many of their proceedings *Fooleries*. Take him in his plain-speaking mood.

'And why are there such? They are not essential to schemes of agricultural improvement, they are not in the nature even of agricul-

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'* *Swallow*]—I have once, and only once, seen a joint of *prize mutton* on a table. It was at an invitation dinner and meant for a great treat. I have heard, (and I know something) of being attracted "*nidore culinæ*." The force upon this occasion was quite in an opposite direction. Both smell and looks were extremely repulsive. I cannot say, indeed, that they absolutely drove me out of the room; but they were very *satiating*, which I was sorry for, as the rest of the dinner was excellent. My poor dear friend *Dr. Abdomen*, a well-known *amateur* agriculturist, one of the politest men living, a keen and intelligent lover of a haunch, was in the most ludicrous distress imaginable. It was infinitely diverting to see his wry faces intended for smiles, and his strong efforts to swallow and to compliment, barely overcoming his inclination to vomit.

'† *Dips*] — Some time ago, an eminent tallow-chandler of this country remarked that of late the quantity of tallow brought to his office was sufficient for the consumption of it; whereas he had formerly been obliged to purchase a good deal from London. This was reported to a certain distinguished member of our *Agricultural Society*. "There!" said he, (with all the warm and benevolent animation of a man who feels conscious of promoting the public good,) "There," said he, "see what our *Society* has done! *Norfolk* produces her own *tallow*, which she used to import." I am afraid I am retailing a stale anecdote, for it is in great currency, and I have heard it myself twenty times. Some of my readers, however, have not, and it is certainly a good one.'

tural

tural experiment and speculation. Nay, they are not only a positive, but the principal hindrance of the good effects of them. Suppose a probable suggestion of useful change, or new practice, to be given from *any* quarter. If it be pursued singly, steadily, and patiently, till a fair result be drawn, and the proposed practice be adopted or rejected; if, being adopted, it be cautiously and discreetly, but firmly, recommended to general use; if it be clearly explained and exemplified; it will be received. What has happened before, will happen again. Real good will have been done, as far as it was attempted. But, wandering to a second, a third, perhaps a tenth, object, before the first is half understood; wavering and halting between this, and that, and another; betraying an itching curiosity for every thing that is new; proposing indiscriminately to the intelligent and the ignorant, the candid and the designing, questions of which some are unmeaning, some frivolous, some unintelligible; collecting thus a miscellaneous and incongruous mass of *raw* materials, without order or connection, and therefore without use; confounding this confusion daily worse and worse by additions of like sort; accumulating any thing and every thing, digesting nothing; playing off the mummery and puffery of *Sheep-sheerings* and *Cattle-shews*, where all is expressly required to be natural, and all is obviously and notoriously artificial; forming adjudications on fanciful and even silly and childish criteria, and very often so as to incur, at least, a reasonable suspicion of bias; investing the most trifling and contemptible insipidities in the pompous garb of scientific phraseology; but patching it plentifully with rustic vulgarisms, as if it were to make sure that nobody should understand the *whole*; all this, (which is not locally but generally characteristic of *Agriculturistical* Transactions) can have only these obvious tendencies and sure effects—to invite humbug, to provoke ridicule, and to obstruct improvement.'

Our limits will not allow us to *pursue* these *pursuits* more at length. —We expect farther amusement from the remaining Canto; and if our hopes are realized, we shall endeavour to admit our readers to a participation of the pleasure. Mo.y.

POLITICS.

Art. 27. *An Apology for His Royal Highness the Duke of York*, against the malignant Charges preferred against him by *a* Mr. Wardle. A Subject in which every Individual of the Country is concerned; so far as an Invasion of the Peace and Happiness of a noble Character can interest him. — We are all bound by a moral and political Obligation to repel the Attacks of Envy or Malice, even though the Sting be not directed to ourselves. By Astræa. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Printed at Lynn, and sold by Walker, London.

Art. 28. *A Letter to the Viscount Folkestone; on the Unlawfulness of the Votes of Thanks to Mr. Wardle and the Late Minority.* By John Pern Tinney, Esq. 8vo. 1s. 6d. C. and R. Baldwin.

By placing the titles of these pamphlets together, the reader will at one glance perceive the different views in which writers contemplate

template the same subject, (though entertaining similar motives,) and the bias which each endeavours to give to the public mind. The first aims at shielding H. R. Highness by an apology; while the latter attempts to draw off our attention from the main question. Astræa tells us that the Duke 'as a *prince* has preserved all that dignity and *decorum* which we must admire,' and then pronounces the charges to be 'the malignant fabrications of a *cast off mistress*': but is it a mark of *decorum* in a married man to have a mistress to cast off? We would not pay His Royal Highness so bad a compliment as to suppose that he could feign a smile for such an advocate. Such trash the genuine *Astræa* could never sanction.—Mr. Tinney does not professedly enter on a defence of the Duke, but discusses the policy of withdrawing from public consideration whatever may tend to the dishonour and reproach of the members of the Royal House. He alludes to the filial piety which threw a mantle over the patriarch's shame, and insinuates that in the case in question *hiding* would have been better than *disclosing*. Surely, however, he would not make an exception to the constitutional doctrine of responsibility in favour of *all* the Royal Family, by placing them in offices of trust, and exempting their conduct from inquiry? Inviolability attaches only to the King, and the constitution would vanish if that doctrine extended one step beyond him. The possibility that the Duke of York *may* hereafter wield the Imperial sceptre ought not, when he holds an office of importance, to render him irresponsible; and all that the letter-writer has advanced to this purpose is very flimsy.—With respect to his subsequent logic on the unlawfulness of the votes of thanks, founded on what is termed the acquittal of the Duke, Mr. T. does not seem to consider that the House of Commons is no Court of Judicature; and that their conduct, as representatives of the people, will naturally be marked by approbation or by censure without doors. Votes of thanks merely express the opinion of the individuals who present them; and often both parties are thanked by their respective adherents in terms equally warm: but it is a new doctrine, which Mr. Tinney has created for the occasion, to maintain that Votes of thanks are *unlawful*. Perhaps we shall soon be told that voting is *unlawful*, and that *Elections* should be *suppressed*.

Mo:y.

Art. 29 *Reflections upon the State and Conduct of Public Affairs* at the Commencement of the Year 1809. By an Englishman of the Old School. 8vo. 2s. Cadell and Davies.

Though only a few months have elapsed since this pamphlet was written, they have been productive of such changes in the political world, that the writer's reflections are become in a manner obsolete. Much blame is thrown on the ministry for their tardy conduct in succouring the Spaniards; and he seems to regard it as a misfortune that they should lose his good opinion, for he begs to be allowed to say 'that if he has formed an erroneous estimate of the talents and principles of the present administration, it will be truly unfortunate for the kingdom over which they preside.' We however must, in our turn, beg to be of a different opinion; it will be more fortunate

ate for the Kingdom that he should be wrong than that he should be right in his estimate; and we moreover think that, in spite of late disasters, the credit of Ministry and the Spirit of the Country are both higher than when his pamphlet was first published.

Mo-y.

MISCELLANEOUS.

Art. 30. *Abolition of Tithe recommended*, in an Address to the Agriculturists of Great Britain, in which the increasing and unjust Claims of the Clergy are fully examined and disputed; with some Observations on the present Construction of the Law of Tithing, and its dangerous Consequences to the landed Interest of this Country. By Richard Flower. 8vo. pp. 43. 1s. 6d. Bumford.

A more furious attack than this, on the claims of the Church, we do not recollect to have witnessed, and we forewarn Mr. Flower that he must prepare himself for encountering a full discharge of clerical indignation. Not satisfied with denominating Tithe an oppressive institution, he does not hesitate to attribute its continuance 'to the craft and cunning of the priesthood, on one part, and to the *credulity, superstition, and folly of the people*, on the other part.' Our readers need not to be informed that we are no friends to this coarse mode of argumentation; and that, though we wish, for the advantage of the agricultural interest of the country, that some other mode than that of tithe could be adopted for the maintenance of the ministers of religion, we cannot deem it either fair or decent that the clergy should be accused of craft and cunning, for endeavouring to secure to themselves the benefit of those provisions which the law has made for their support, and for attending as carefully to their secular interests as other men. No objection can be made to a fair and manly discussion of the merits of their claims, or to an inquiry into every circumstance relative to Tithe: but as we must admit that its value is very considerable, and that it will not be easy to substitute a full equivalent for it, we ought not to reflect on the clergy for not relishing projected alterations. Self interest governs them in the same proportion as it influences other bodies of men.

Mr. Flower first complains that whereas tithe was originally collected for four purposes, and was distributed in a four-fold division, one part to the bishop, another to the repair of the church, a third to the use of the poor, and the fourth part for the use of the incumbent; *now* the repairs of churches almost entirely, and the provision for the poor altogether, fall on the parishes, while the whole of the tithe is allotted to the clergy. Looking to things as they are, Mr. F. reprobates the principle of extending the rigid law of taking a tenth of the clear produce in the present improved system of agriculture; and he contends that the Clergy ought to be satisfied with 'a tenth part of the clear gain or profit when all charges are deducted,' as in the case of *personal* tithe. We are told that 'the claims of the clergy for the release of tithe have increased from one tenth acre to one eighth, and at length to a *fifth* part

part of the fee simple *:' but, if Mr. F.'s mode of estimating were adopted, *viz.* of assigning only a tenth of the net profit, the present incomes of the clergy would undergo a very great reduction. To prove that, if tithe were universally taken in kind, farmers would be forced to abandon their fields, and Britain be left in want of bread, the author states the following fact :

'Calling at an inn one morning to breakfast, in one of the most fertile parishes in the county where I reside, I had neither cream nor milk brought me ; on requesting some might be served, the answer was, that they had none, nor could any be procured : on enquiring the reason, I was assured that the parish contained not a drop. The tithe was gathered in kind, and not a single farmer thought it worth his while to keep a cow ; but all the milk that was used was brought from a neighbouring parish : nor let the reader suppose that this was owing to a fit of spleen, or a desire of fraud : it was founded on real and proper calculation. The tenth of the milk being seized, the farmer was left destitute of any sufficient profit to make it worth while to keep his cows. Grazing of bullocks was substituted; the tithe gatherer being obliged to take an agistment thereon, not equal to above one tenth of the amount of the milk the farmer had been seized of, and for which had he compounded at first, the earth would not have been interrupted in its increase, nor the parish deprived of its comforts.'

For the purpose of aiding the cause of Abolition, Mr. F. proposes that, in lieu of all tithe, both small and great, the clergy should be allowed ten per cent. on the profit of the farmer, according to the rule applied in collecting the property tax ; and that, in cases of new inclosures, the tithe proprietor should be restrained from taking more than one sixth in lieu of tithe arising from this source.

As the pamphlet commences with some severe strokes at the clergy, it finishes in the same strain ; and Mr. F. cannot advert to the revenues of the Church without asking, 'What is all this for ?' He considers the good done by the Clergy as greatly overpaid ; and he calls on the avaricious and inconsiderate among them to discern *the signs of the times*, and not, by increasing their claims, or resisting necessary reformation, to provoke that revolutionary hurricane by which all their property will be swept away from them.

These arguments, addressed to the fears of the Clergy, will not, we suppose, have much weight : but considerarions present themselves, though not introduced by this writer, which render some legal arrangement respecting tithe a matter of political expediency. **Mo-y.**

Art. 31. *A Statement of the Proceedings of the Presbytery of Glasgow, relative to the Use of an Organ in St. Andrew's Church,* in the Public Worship of God, on the 23d Aug. 1807. Small 8vo. pp. 269. Ogle, Glasgow and London. 1808.

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* 'In inclosures, one *fourth* of the fee simple has been demanded.'

"The swelling Organ (according to Pope) lifts the rising soul;" and most of His Majesty's liege subjects south of the Tweed coincide with the poet and the papist in this sentiment: being fully persuaded that, while the clerk and his coadjutors the psalm-singers are kept in time and harmony by the operation of this most powerful wind-instrument, the grandeur and imposing solemnity of public worship are promoted by its rich and impressive tones. In Scotland, this matter is viewed in a very different light; and the attempt to introduce an Organ into St. Andrew's Church at Glasgow has produced a very *unmusical* effect. In this instance, the dread of innovation has operated as strongly on the governors of the northern, as it ever has been known to influence those of the southern establishment; and our English readers will be surprized to hear it asserted that the introduction of an Organ in divine worship is in fact 'forbidden by the second commandment,' since they will not be able to perceive the connection between image worship and instrumental music. It must not, however, be supposed that the subject is decided here by *authority*, with only weak arguments for its support. To Dr. Ritchie, the Minister of St. Andrew's church, who endeavours to justify his conduct in the permission of the use of an organ, the Committee of the Presbytery make a very able reply, in which the arguments of Dr. R. are examined, and the admissibility of Instrumental Worship is amply discussed. This work, therefore, containing the substance of the controversy on the *Organ cause*, presents a long and curious discussion, which to some readers may not be un-amusing. The committee of the Presbytery contend that we are not warranted to transfer the Instrumental Music of the Jewish into the Christian church, that the authority of the early Christian church is against its use, that the Scotch Reformers were adverse to it, and that the Organ introduced into St. Andrew's church was a violation of the purity and uniformity of their Public Worship. Notwithstanding the discretion of Dr R. in preventing all voluntaries and flourishes, and in keeping the Organ to a simple accompaniment of the precentor or clerk, his conduct has been much censured, and it has led the Presbytery formally to prohibit the use of Organs in all their churches and chapels.

This *Organ cause*, as it has been called, appears to have excited much attention in Scotland, and considerable ingenuity and learning have been displayed on both sides of the question: but the advocates for vocal simplicity in Divine Worship have prevailed; and it is decreed, in the northern part of the island, that the voice of religious joy and praise shall not be assisted by sounds mechanically passing through wooden or metallic pipes.

Mo-y.

SINGLE SERMONS.

Art. 32. *The Doctrine of God's moral Government of Nations, vindicated from the Objections peculiar to it:* preached at Trinity Chapel, Conduit Street, Feb. 17, 1808, being the Day appointed for a General Fast. By the Rev. J. E. Jackson, of Queen's College, Oxford. 8vo. 1s. Rivingtons.

From

From the *moral nature* of societies, the preacher deduces the inference that they are '*capable* of being treated as moral agents'; and he farther maintains that a law for their conduct '*actually exists*,' and that it is evident that a moral dispensation with respect to states and political societies is '*actually carrying on*.' The application of such a doctrine is obvious, and the exhortation to Britons to seek the Divine Protection by righteousness is warranted by the premises. Mr. J confesses his obligation to Bishop Warburton for the hint respecting the *moral capacity* of societies. Mo.y.

Art. 33. *Christian Liberty advocated:* a Discourse delivered June 29, 1808, at the Unitarian Chapel in Lincoln. By Henry Hunt Piper. 8vo. 1s. Longman and Co.

The liberty accomplished (or, to speak more correctly, intended to be accomplished) by the Gospel, is stated by Mr. Piper to be a deliverance from the dominion of sin, from slavish superstition, resulting from erroneous apprehensions of the deity, and from civil interference in religious concerns, as well as from the fetters of ecclesiastical authority. Under each of these heads, some spirited remarks are offered, which will be deemed orthodox by some and heterodox by others. D.o

Art. 34. *The Christian Name:* addressed to the Congregation assembling in Mill-Hill Chapel, Leeds, October 30, 1808, on accepting the Pastoral Office in that Place. Published by particular Desire. By Thomas Jervis. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Johnson.

By the *Christian name* this preacher means the name *Christian* first given at Antioch, as a general appellation, to the followers of Christ. Having adverted to the propriety of this discriminating epithet, to the state of the church at the period when it was bestowed, and to the exertions and sufferings of those who first did honour to it, Mr. Jervis proceeds to suggest two points of inquiry to the consideration of the congregation which had appointed him their spiritual pastor, viz. *What is it to be a Christian?* and *Why are you a Christian?* In replying to the first, he observes: 'The real Christian does not expose his religious profession to contempt or ridicule, by a pretended infallibility in deciding controversies; nor disgrace it by the outward parade and the sanctimonious appearances of piety, by an hypocritical cant and mockery of devotion, or by the gross and scandalous irregularities of an immoral life and conversation. He lays little stress upon principles farther than they are productive of good actions. He is less solicitous about his faith than his practice—while his mind is still impressed with a firm conviction, that the purity of the former is conducive to the rectitude of the latter. He is less anxious to *appear* devout, than to *be* honest and sincere; less desirous to be *thought* orthodox, than to *be* just, charitable, humble, and unfeignedly and unostentatiously pious.'

Some readers, perhaps, will recognize none of what they call the fundamentals of Christianity in this delineation: but, if professing Christians were generally formed on this model, more of the spirit of the Gospel would prevail in the church, and more happiness in the world.—Under the second inquiry, Mr. Jervis expresses a hope that the

the members of his new flock are Christians on principle; and on this presumption he exhorts them to honour the name which they bear, to prefer it to party distinctions, to renounce the authority of man in the church, and to look to Christ as 'the most illustrious model of every virtue that can adorn our nature, endeavouring to walk as he walked, to live as he lived.'

Though the preacher speaks of himself with great diffidence, we may venture to assert that the whole of this address proves him to be not unworthy of filling the pulpit of Mill-Hill chapel, which has been graced by the abilities of several eminent dissenting ministers. Mo.v.

Art. 35. *The Christian Hero.*—Preached at the Meeting-House, Wolverhampton street, Dudley. November 13, 1808, on Occasion of the Death of the Rev. Theophilus Lindsey, M. A. By James Hews Bransby. 8vo. 1s. Printed at Birmingham.

Imbibing the principles and venerating the conduct of that truly christian hero, the late Theophilus Lindsey, Mr. Bransby has great pleasure in displaying the character of this amiable man, and holding him up as an object of merited esteem. He who, regardless of the honours and emoluments of the world, honestly and courageously follows the dictates of an enlightened conscience, is more truly great than he, who, in order to obtain the homage of the multitude, and to preserve the splendors of an elevated station, smothers his convictions, and apparently epouses, in the face of the world, doctrines which he disowns in his closet. Do

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To the READERS of the MONTHLY REVIEW.

The EDITOR begs leave to inform the Readers of the M. R., that arrangements have lately been made in the stock of that work, to facilitate the supply of any Numbers or Volumes (that are not out of print) from its commencement in 1749 to the present time, which may be wanting to render setts complete. Early applications, however, are recommended, because very few copies of some Numbers remain in the Warehouse.

A coloured Engraving of a curious species of Monkey was given in the Eighteenth Volume of the Old Series of the M. R. page 236, which, it is believed, is now wanting in many setts. Some impressions of it have been discovered among the Stock; and any proprietor of that Volume, who finds it deficient in the Print, may have the omission supplied, *gratis*, on sending the Volume to the Publisher, No. 81, Pall Mall. In any other case, the Print may be had at the price of Half a Crown.

*** In the last Review, p. 177. l. penult. for 'occur,' r. *occurs.*—P. 214. the price of Art. 27. should be 6s.

Errors, pp. 299, 335.